The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MAY 1, 1890.

The Week.

THE Senate Republicans have brought forward their scheme for a Federal election law in a bill presented by Mr. Hoar on Thursday. Briefly summarized, it takes entire control of Congressional elections from the State authorities, with whom it has rested ever since the Government was established, and vests it in men to be appointed by the judges of the Federal courts. This is contrary alike to all our traditions and to the spirit of our institutions; indeed, it is the largest step towards centralization yet proposed. Objectionable thus in principle, it would inevitably work only harm in practice, and we do not think that Senator Pugh of Alabama exaggerated when he said: "If the bill becomes a law, its execution will insure the shedding of blood and the destruction of the peace and good order of this country." The favorable report of such a measure from a Senate committee is another sign of the dangerous tendencies in the Republican party.

The correspondence published regarding the enforcement of Federal laws in Florida illustrates the disastrous consequences of lowering the standard of the United States judiciary. The President directs the Attorney-General to instruct the new United States Marshal in Florida that the resistance which has been made to the execution of the process of the courts in certain counties "cannot be longer tolerated," whereupon the editor of the Jacksonville *Times-Union*, the leading newspaper of the State, addresses Mr. Harrison an open letter, defending the people from the charge brought against them, but pointing out that officers of the court have been so open and loud in their threats to prostitute their power to partisan advantage—the Marshal ordering his deputy, in defiance of the United States law, to select for jurors only "true and tried Republicans"—that it is not strange that in some instances men have been rendered desperate. "The people of these four counties," he says, "do not desire to offer any obstructions or any resistance to the execution of the laws; it is their wish to aid you in bringing wrong-doers to punishment; but I know that I voice their sentiments when I assure you that they cannot respect the United States Court for this district if it is to continue its policy of the last nine months. If it is purified, if it is cleansed of all suspicion of partisanship, of designed oppression, of injustice, its officers will encounter no resistance, no obstruction, no evasion in Leon, Gadsden, Jefferson, and Madison Counties. Constitute a district court to mete out justice, not injustice, and the people of Florida will hold it in as high respect as do the people of any State in the Union." If any further argument were needed against the passage of a Federal election law, it would be found in the fact that it is proposed to vest the control of elections in courts presided over by partisans like Judge Swayne of Florida, which it is impossible for the people to respect.

The dinner of the Americus Republican Club in Pittsburgh on Saturday evening was rendered notable by the presence of Speaker Reed and Assistant Postmaster-General Clarkson, and by their foreshadowings of the policy adopted by the party leaders at Washington. Briefly summarized, this policy is to stand by Quay and maintain him as Chairman of the Republican National Committee, and to pass a Federal election law, under which, to use Mr. Reed's words, the Republicans will "do our own registration, our own counting, and our own certification." Apparently the managers expect to lose a good many seats in the next House of Representatives from Northern States, and have made up their minds to try and secure enough seats from the South to give them a majority. In order to bring about this result, sectional strife is to be stirred up, and the negro is to be sacrificed, since nothing worse for the negro can be imagined than to revive in all its intensity race animosity. The idea that good relations between whites and blacks are to be promoted by interference from Washington is of course too absurd for anybody to entertain; and, to do them justice, the Republican managers make small pretence of believing any such thing. Good relations between the races are the last thing in the world that they want, so long as they believe that trouble between whites and blacks brings votes to their party. It is a reckless game which they propose to play, and they may find that they are presuming too much upon the stupidity of the patient partisans on whom they rely.

The most extraordinary feature of the Pittsburgh speeches was Mr. Clarkson's frank confession that the press of the country, and by consequence the readers of the country, are becoming Democratic. Here are his words: "The campaign of 1892 will be largely a newspaper campaign, and it has already begun. Let us be frank and say that the Democrats saw this before the Republicans; for any close observer must have seen with interest, and almost astonishment, the marvellous manner in which the Democratic party has been strengthening its lines in the newspaper or the magazine. It did not use to care as much as the Republican party for the newspaper and the magazine. In latter days it has been beating us in our own game. In the large cities of the East they have captured nearly all the magazines and illustrated papers." Mr. Clarkson went a step further, and showed how the people who read newspapers are taking Democratic in preference to Republican journals, telling of a canvass which he has had made in a county near Chicago, where 680 Republican families are taking Democratic papers, and only 95 Democratic families taking Republican papers. Mr. Clarkson professed to be surprised at these developments; but what else could he expect when he himself, after conducting a Republican newspaper during the last Presidential campaign, and pledging his party to support civil-service reform, removes 30,000 postmasters within a year, and then goes to Pittsburgh to denounce the reform, and to declare that "no real American sympathy attends the present experiment"—by which expression he refers to the Civil-Service Law?

The long-threatened assault upon the Civil-Service Commission was made in the House a week ago, and proved a complete failure. The spoilsmen in both parties were vociferous in denunciation of civil-service reform and in abuse of the Commissioners, seven Republicans and seven Democrats taking the floor on that side of the question; and among those representing the majority were Grosvenor, one of the most prominent Republican members from Ohio; Houk of Tennessee, the leading Southern Republican; Dunnell of Minnesota; and Perkins of Kansas. The Democrats who supported Houk's motion to "starve out" the Commission, by striking from the Appropriation Bill the item providing for its support, were of the type fitly represented by Spinola, the Tammany statesman of this city, and Biggs, an old fogy from California. Mr. Blount, one of the ablest Democrats from the South, and Mr. Tracy, from the Albany district in this State, sustained the law and the Commission, as did also several members on the Republican side, notably Mr. Moore of New Hampshire and Messrs. McKinley and Butterworth of Ohio. Mr. McKinley pressed home upon his party colleagues the faithlessness to their platform pledges involved in the Houk proposition, and told them plainly that "the merit system was here, and here to stay." When a vote was finally reached, 61 Representatives voted to strike out the appropriation for the Commission, while 120 favored its retention. Unfortunately, the vote was taken in Committee of the Whole, where the roll is not called, so that it is impossible to place the responsibility for the affirmative outside of those who made speeches on that side. The *Tribune's* correspondent estimates that the affirmative was about evenly divided between the two parties, while the negative was made up of about eighty Republicans to forty Democrats. So far as the discussion went, however, the Republicans made the poorer showing, as the men who sustained the "starving-out" scheme on that side of the chamber were far more prominent than the Democrats who championed the cause of the spoilsmen.

This vote settles the question as to a re-

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peal of the Civil-Service Law On a yea-and-nay vote in the House it is not probable that sixty members could be found who would record themselves on that side. So far as the Republican opponents of the reform are concerned, their position is most shameless, for every one of them sustained the party in 1888 upon a platform which reproached the Democrats with having broken their pledges regarding the cause, affirmed generally that "we will not fail to keep our pledges because they have broken theirs," and declared explicitly that "the reform of the civil service, auspiciously begun under the Republican Administration, should be completed by the further extension of the reform system, already established by law, to all the grades of the service to which it is applicable." Grosvenor, Houk, Dunnell, Perkins, and the rest of them were thus pledged, not only to sustain the Commission, but to vote it such larger sums as it needs for "the further extension of the reform system." Mr. McKinley took the right ground when he said that his only regret was that the Appropriations Committee did not give to the Civil-Service Commission all the appropriation it asked for such enlargement of its operations. However, it is something to be thankful for that under an Administration which is dominated by Quay the Commission is not "starved out."

The vast power which is possessed by the Supreme Court of the United States receives a fresh and striking illustration in its decision regarding prohibition on Monday. After Iowa enacted a prohibitory law, a firm of brewers in Peoria, Ill., sent some of their beer in sealed kegs and cases by railroad to Keokuk, where their agent, a non-resident, offered it for sale in the original packages. The liquor was seized by the City Marshal, and the brewers brought suit against him, alleging that the seizure was unconstitutional and void, as in violation of the clause of the Federal Constitution which gives Congress the exclusive right to regulate inter-State commerce. The local court decided in favor of the brewers, but the Supreme Court of Iowa reversed its decision, and an appeal was then taken to the highest tribunal in the country. The Supreme Court at Washington now overrules the Supreme Court of Iowa, and decides that the transportation of liquor from one State to another is a matter of inter-State commerce which Congress alone can regulate, and that the right of transportation of an article of commerce from one State to another includes by necessary implication the right of the consignee to sell it in unbroken packages at the place where the transportation terminates. The decision was concurred in by six judges, the other three dissenting, and it carries the weight of authority, as well as of numbers, inasmuch as the majority includes Justice Miller, the generally recognized leader of the bench, as well as Justices Bradley and Field and the Chief Justice, while the dissenters are Justices Gray, Harlan, and Brewer. It will be observed that the Republican judges were evenly divided, three for and three against the position taken, while the three Democrats stood together. It is also worthy of note that the Iowa member of the court, Justice Miller, decides against the claim of his State.

This decision virtually breaks down prohibition by State law. No matter how rigorous a law Iowa may enact against the sale of liquor, Illinois brewers can send beer into the State and sell it, and in like manner Boston liquor-dealers can defy the Maine law by importing their wares into Neal Dow's city. The only condition is that the "original package" must not be broken before the sale; but as this package may be a keg, a bottle, or a flask—any receptacle, so long as it is sealed—there is practically no restriction upon the traffic. Moreover, it would appear as though the decision were almost as fatal to license as to prohibition, for the dissenting opinion, delivered by Justice Gray, says: "If the statutes of a State, restricting or prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors within its territory, are to be held inoperative and void as applied to liquors sent or brought from another State and sold by the importer in what are called original packages, the consequence must be that an inhabitant of any State may, under the pretext of inter-State commerce and without license or supervision of any public authority, carry or send into and sell in any or all of the other States of the Union intoxicating liquors of whatever description, in cases or kegs, or even in single bottles or flasks, despite any legislation of those States on the subject, and although his own State should be the only one which had not enacted similar laws." The Philadelphia *Press* interprets this to mean that liquor may be sent from Camden to Philadelphia in bottles and flasks, and sold freely and indiscriminately without a license, and it certainly seems as though this theory were correct. If so, the consequences of the decision will be far-reaching and enormous, and the whole problem of dealing with the liquor traffic is involved in new and great difficulties.

The signs of "getting ready" to pass a Silver Bill multiply at Washington, but there is as much doubt as ever what kind of a bill it will be. The latest discovery made by the true-blue silverites is that the caucus bill enables the Secretary of the Treasury to sell silver bullion as well as to buy it. Any holder of the Treasury notes issued in payment for silver bullion may present them to the Treasury and ask to have them redeemed in bullion, and the Secretary may, if he chooses, redeem them in bullion at the market price of the day. Now these notes will drift to the Treasury in payment of Government dues to exactly the extent that they are not wanted for circulation. The Secretary may deposit the notes with any national bank that is willing to receive them, and the bank may present them at the Sub-Treasury and call for bullion. In this way the Secretary would have an equal chance with the bullion-speculators to manipulate the market. Of course that will never do. What is wanted is a steady market for 4,500,000 ounces of pure silver each month at the expense of the taxpayers. No measure which allows the Secretary to sell as well as to buy will ever get the support of the silver-mine owners.

A preposterous proposition, which not only is bad in itself, but constitutes a vicious precedent, has just been carried through the Senate by Mr. Blair, in the shape of a bill appropriating $50,000 for the erection of an equestrian statue of Gen. Stark, the Revolutionary hero, in the city of Manchester, N. H., "and for the proper preparation, grading, and enclosing of the lot and foundation upon which said statue shall be erected." In other words, the taxpayers of the whole country are to furnish $50,000 to beautify a New Hampshire city with a park and a statue. Mr. Moody of South Dakota made an earnest protest against the scheme, saying: "There is no just right to expend the money of my constituents for such a purpose; and now, when it is before the country that the low price of farm products in the West and in many cases the failure of crops have brought many people to the verge of pauperism, it is not just or right, and cannot be justified, that money shall be taken from the Treasury and expended for such a purpose." Gen. Hawley of Connecticut took even stronger ground against the proposition, saying: "I do not see how we can embark in this business. I do not see why New Hampshire has been guilty of avoiding the duty of erecting a statue in memory of that gallant hero; but if we are to enter upon this business, if this is to be regarded as a fair and just course on the part of the Federal Government, all the States will be clamoring to have all their heroes taken care of in a similar way by the national Government. If they are proud, as they ought to be, they should put up such monuments themselves." In the course of the discussion it came out that New Hampshire herself has at last recognized the long-neglected duty of erecting a statue to Stark, and that steps have already been taken to place such a memorial in the State-house Park at Concord. Nevertheless, the Senate passed the bill by a vote of 37 to 15.

"Senatorial courtesy" probably forbade telling the truth about the scheme, which is simply that Mr. Blair's term is approaching its close, and that he wants to "make himself solid" with his constituents by giving them a fine park, ornamented by a statue, without their being obliged to pay for it. A New Hampshire paper, the Concord *People and Patriot*, sums up the case forcibly when it says: "No such bill ought to pass. In the first place, the General Government should build statues and monuments to no man anywhere else than at the national

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capital. In the next place, $50,000 is twice the amount necessary for the purpose whenever and wherever it may be carried out. Again, the State of New Hampshire is about to erect a suitable statue of Stark in the State-house Park in this city, which will answer for all practical purposes. If Manchester wants one, let her enterprising Board of Trade get up a subscription to pay for it." There is some reason to hope that the House may not be as complaisant to the New Hampshire Senator as his colleagues have been. The *Tribune's* correspondent says that "several other similar measures are pending in Congress, and, though the Senate may be disposed to pass them, the House has shown a commendable disposition to economize on such miscellaneous and by no means necessary appropriations, and thus keep down the sum total of the expenses of this session, which are sure to be swollen in any case by demands of the most imperative and legitimate sort." If the nation should once enter upon this policy, the statue scandal would soon be greater and worse than that of the public-buildings grab-game.

An apt comment on the McKinley Administrative Bill is supplied by the following advertisement extensively published by a Chicago firm dealing in crockery and glassware:

> The McKinley Tariff Bill (for the reduction of the revenue), if it becomes a law July 1, 1890, will cause an advance in prices about as follows:
>
> Imported blown flint, cut top, table tumblers, 500 dozen just received—Our price, 75 cents dozen; McKinley price, $1.15 dozen.
>
> Haviland & Co.'s decorated china dinner sets, in thirty-five new decorations, now arriving—Our price, $30 to $250; McKinley price, $40 to $315.
>
> English printed dinner sets, in a large variety of decorations and patterns—Our price, $8.50 to $100; McKinley price, $11.50 to $135.
>
> Retail department, French & Potter Co., Wabash Avenue and Washington Street, Chicago.

It is obvious that the French & Potter Co. are not paying large sums of money in advertising merely to bring the McKinley bill into discredit. They are seeking to attract buyers by showing how much cheaper they can get crockery and glassware for their tables now than they can after the McKinley bill passes. A decorated china dinner set now costing $30 will be advanced to $40, and a printed one from $8.50 to $11.50. This is to be accomplished by adding to the dutiable value of the things imported the cost of crates, packing, inland freight, commissions, port charges, and all other expenses connected with the shipment, which are disproportionately heavy for such bulky and fragile goods as crockery and glassware. The duty on this kind of crockery is 60 per cent. It is proposed to increase this exorbitant tax by requiring the importer to pay 60 per cent. duty on the crates and straw in which they are packed, and which are worth nothing afterward, on the labor of packing and carting, on the foreign railway and insurance charges, etc. In every case where any such thing now costs a dollar, it is to cost hereafter a dollar and sixty cents.

Mr. Darlington of Pennsylvania is a worthy member of the Republican party in that State. In the House on Tuesday, he made the following curiously vulpine statement about the charges against Quay:

> "Mr. Darlington (Rep.)—I move to strike out the last word. I do not take very much interest in the kind of discussion that we have had here lately on this bill, but, as an act of justice to the Chairman of the Republican National Committee, I wish to make a brief statement. Mr. Quay, the gentleman to whom allusion has been made here, was State Treasurer of Pennsylvania, and I was on his bond for the sum of $50,000. When he was elected Senator, he resigned the office of State Treasurer. There was no defalcation nor anything of the kind. I never was called upon as bondsman to pay one dollar. I never heard of this ridiculous story until to-day, and I here pronounce it false in every particular so far as Mr. Quay's connection with the State of Pennsylvania as State Treasurer is concerned."

Now, observe how easy it is to expose this man. Quay was *Secretary of State* when he took $260,000 from the State Treasury and lost it in stock speculation. When he was State Treasurer, and Darlington was his bondsman, he took $400,000 and speculated with it and made money, and restored what he had taken. Consequently there did not appear to be any defalcation when he went out of office, and of course Darlington had nothing to pay on his account. So that in all that Darlington says there is not one word of real answer to the charge, but he tried to impose it on his hearers as a "vindication."

The Republican moralists are covering themselves with glory in this Quay matter. Here comes Prof. D. H. Wheeler, LL.D., of Alleghany College, to excuse Quay in the *Christian Advocate* for not answering the charges recently made against him. According to the Professor, the Senator's refusal to notice them "is a good example to us all." The reason of this is, that "a libel suit would be worth more than the highest possible cost to the *World*. At the end of it, no one's judgment would be changed. The only way to test the truth of the charges is for some one of his numerous and powerful enemies to prosecute him in the courts of Pennsylvania. If the charges are true, they can be legally proved." But how could people's judgment remain unchanged if Quay disproved the charges in the courts of New York by sworn testimony? Surely a LL.D. knows that the procedure in the courts of New York is substantially the same as in the courts of Pennsylvania. Witnesses on each side are sworn, examined, and cross-examined; documentary evidence, if any there be, is produced. The judge charges, and the jury deliberates and finds a verdict, in this city just as in Philadelphia. What kind of man would he be who, after hearing Senator Quay's evidence showing that the whole story about his robbing the Treasury was a baseless slander, would refuse to change his judgment? Nobody except a knave or a fool could go on believing, or even pretending to believe, the charge after Quay had in open court exposed its falsity. Can it be that the Professor is drawing this inference about people in general from his own secret determination to disbelieve the charge, no matter how strongly proved? The rest of his reasoning makes this look probable. His contention is, that it cannot be true that Quay robbed the Treasury, because the Professor has himself become case-hardened against newspaper attacks; because John Field was a good appointment; because Wanamaker is a religious man; because a great many false charges are made in newspapers; because newspapers are reckless and filthy; because Dravo is a good man; and so on. Most sensible people, after reading the letter, will ask with amazement, Can it be possible that this man is a Doctor of Laws, and an instructor of youth, and a welcome contributor to a religious newspaper?

We commend the recent developments at Albany to the thoughtful attention of those political commentators who are in the habit of attributing all our worst legislative, municipal, and governmental abuses generally to our "immense ignorant foreign population." Who are the most active friends of undesirable legislation at Albany? They are Robertson, Erwin, Coggeshall, Vedder, Ives, and Cantor in the Senate, and Husted, Fish, Gibbs, and Sheehan in the Assembly. Are these foreigners? Every man of them was born in this country, and the majority of them are of American parentage. Some of them, like Mr. Fish, are of illustrious and honorable stock. Is it the fault of the "ignorant foreign population" that these men pursue the course that they do? Is it any wonder, when they misuse public office, that ignorant foreigners who happen to get into other offices imitate their bad example? Our worst governmental troubles do not come from the ignorant voters, foreign or domestic, but from educated Americans, who misuse the power which those voters are induced to place in their hands. That is as true of Congress as it is of our Legislature.

New England complains that her farms are being deserted, and that the population of her agricultural districts is dwindling. So serious has the situation become that more than one State has instituted measures to promote immigration and thus fill up the waste places, Vermont even sending across the Atlantic and bringing people all the way from Sweden. Yet at the same time the leading journals of New England contain flaming advertisements of land companies, organized with New England capital and officered by New England magnates, which urge New England people to abandon their present homes and settle in the South. An ex-Governor of Vermont is President of one of these companies, and another ex-Governor is prominent in another such company. In this way one may sometimes read in one column of a newspaper an article describing some movement to resettle deserted farms in a New England State, and in another column of the same issue find an advertisement which holds out the strongest inducements for the desertion of farms that are still cultivated.

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THE LATEST SILVER BILL.

ALTHOUGH a joint caucus of the Republican members of the House and Senate Committees having the subject of silver money in charge have agreed upon a bill, it would be unsafe to predict that the bill, or indeed any bill, will be passed at this session of Congress. Whatever may be said by interested parties in Wall Street or elsewhere, the fact that business goes on without any hoarding of gold to speak of, or any rush to buy sterling exchange, proves that business men do not take the bill or bills seriously, no matter what juntas of Congressmen may have agreed to them.

The latest bill agreed upon provides for the following things:

(1.) The purchase by the Treasury of 4,500,000 ounces of "free silver" per month. What is meant by free silver we do not know. As there is no silver in prison except that in the Government's vaults, we conclude that it means pure silver as distinguished from standard silver nine-tenths fine. If this is the meaning, the bill requires the purchase of about 5,000,000 ounces of standard silver per month, which, at one dollar per ounce (the present quotation is 105), would add $35,000,000 per annum to the public disbursements.

(2.) The bullion is to be paid for by a new kind of Treasury notes of denominations of $1 to $1,000.

(3.) These Treasury notes are not to be legal tender. They are to be redeemed, however, on demand, in lawful money of the United States, are to be receivable for all Government dues and available as reserves of the national banks.

(4.) "The Secretary of the Treasury *shall* coin such portion of the silver bullion purchased as may be necessary to provide for the redemption of the Treasury notes herein provided for." This is a legal definition of the phrase "lawful money of the United States," as used above. It commands the Secretary to redeem the notes in silver dollars, and not otherwise, except where the holder of the notes calls for bullion instead, in which case the Secretary may, if he chooses, weigh out to him an amount of bullion equal, at market value, to the face of the notes.

(5.) The bullion not required for redemption of the notes is to remain in storage as bullion, and the existing two-millions-per-month law is to be repealed.

The bill is rather more complicated and harder to understand than the Windom bill. It is the most obscure and involved of all the bills that have been talked of, and therefore is the one least likely to pass. Congress will hardly pass a measure which the public in general cannot understand. There are three things which common people can understand: they can understand the present law, and any enlargement of coinage under the present law, and they can understand free coinage. Anything more involved they cannot understand. It is doubtful if fifty members of Congress, taking House and Senate together, can form a clear opinion of the workings of this bill, or will ever take the pains to do so.

Is it desirable that such a bill should pass as an alternative to the present law? Clearly not, for the reason that it adds thirty-five millions per annum to the Government expenses at one stroke, and for no value received. The present burden upon the Treasury is exactly the amount of bullion purchased, over and above the amount of silver certificates bought and paid for by the public. The amount of certificates so bought has thus far been equal to the bullion purchased. If we count the seignorage, there has been a gain to the Treasury of $56,000,000 in all. But we have to reckon on the other side the declining value of silver since the Government began buying, which in case of a liquidation would wipe out the apparent profit and a good deal more.

Experience teaches that the present coinage rate of two millions per month is all that the public will take off the Secretary's hands. Any excess of purchases will, therefore, be an addition to the public expenses, exactly the same as a new pension bill or any other unproductive expenditure. It is the same thing as buying any kind of property not wanted for use, as, for example, iron, or cotton, or coal. But the consequence of a great increase of the public expenses is to create a Treasury deficit, and, whenever this happens, and however it may come about, the Treasury will no longer be able to maintain the parity been gold and silver. Not only will the silver crisis then begin, but another kind of crisis will begin at the same time. A Treasury deficit does not exhaust itself with silver payments. Unless taxes are increased, so as to choke the deficit, bonds must be issued to meet current expenses. This is what we have to look forward to if any such insensate measure becomes a law.

THE TAMMANY BIOGRAPHIES.

Two of the members of the Tammany Executive Committee whose portraits were recently sketched by the *Evening Post*, and only two, have had the audacity to exhibit their resentment by obtaining warrants of arrest for criminal libel. One of them, Peter Mitchell, did this, we think, out of his own head. The other, "Barney" Martin, was, we feel pretty sure, impelled thereto by the "Big Four," as they are responsible for him more directly than for Mitchell. They have made him their Deputy-Commissioner of Public Works, while Mitchell is simply a civil justice by appointment of Gov. Hill. How either of them screwed up his courage to go to a police court to get protection for his character, it is difficult to explain except on the theory that the toleration they have so long enjoyed has caused them to lose their heads and forget their antecedents.

The *Evening Post* is now able to add positively in regard to Mitchell that he was a receiver of stolen goods when he kept the rum-shop at the corner of Bleecker and Greene Street, and that he was in partnership with Sharkey, the murderer, in another rum-shop at 202 Broadway, when Sharkey tried to get a stolen gold certificate cashed and was arrested. Mitchell exerted himself vigorously and successfully, both by political influence and swearing to an alibi, to secure his "pal's" deliverance. His alibi affidavit bears the following significant endorsement by Oakey Hall, who was then Mayor:

> I recommend a *nolle prosequi* in the case referred to within. A. OAKEY HALL,
> Ex-District Attorney.
> DECEMBER 20, 1869.

The *nolle prosequi* was entered finally October 7, 1870. It was altogether an artistic piece of work, beginning with a dexterous indictment for grand larceny, which was not provable, instead of an indictment for receiving stolen goods, which would have been provable. Sharkey got off, and subsequently committed a murder and made his escape while under sentence of death in the Tombs, by exchanging clothes with a dissolute woman, who, after the fashion of those old Tammany days, was allowed to visit him in prison.

In December, 1870, Mitchell was admitted to the legal bar after having, according to his own story, studied law behind the liquor bar, at the same time with Tweed's son Richard. The manner in which the Committee on Character performed its duty in those days may be inferred from the foregoing account of Mitchell's previous career. He has since then practised at the criminal bar of this city, he says himself, in a creditable manner, and we have been informed by competent observers that he is superior to his brethren in that branch of the profession, in that he does not strip his clients of everything they possess and subsequently sell them out to their enemies. About this, however, we know little but what he tells us. But we do know that he has all the while been doing his regular stint of work in the field of politics covered by Tammany Hall, and that we now find him a leading spirit in the corrupt and criminal gang known as "the Executive Committee" of that institution.

With regard to Barney Martin, it was an overstatement to say that "he kept" the "Burnt Rag." We believe that he simply had an interest in it, and made it his headquarters or "boosing-ken." Nor was it quite accurate to say that Mr. Moir, the jeweller, put bars on his windows when Barney, "Red" Leary the famous burglar, and his wife Kate the famous pickpocket, had set up a rum-shop next door to him. The bars, it seems, were there already when they arrived, but Mr. Moir would testify that he considered them very dangerous neighbors, and Mr. Coogan, the landlord of the premises, that he went to collect his rents of them with fear and trembling.

The point with regard to both Mitchell and Martin to be borne in mind by the public is, not simply that they are men whose lives have been vicious or infamous, but that they are members of an organization which at this moment charges itself with the duty of dividing the money of the taxpayers and the public offices of the city as booty among a parcel of criminal or semi-

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criminal adventurers. What is far worse is that they fill places of trust in the city government. For Mitchell is one of our judges; not in one of the superior courts, it is true, but still in a court in which the justice of the People of the State of New York is administered, and on which the poor and lowly are dependent for the assertion of their just claims and the protection of their small rights. It would be an insult to the intelligence of our readers to explain the horror and indecency of this.

"Barney" Martin, too, holds an office the administration of which greatly concerns the health, comfort, and property of the taxpayers. In the absence of the Commissioner of Public Works, Martin, as his deputy, fills his place and exercises his powers. Consider for one moment the light which this fact throws on the notions of public duty held by the Commissioner, "Tommy" Gilroy. He appointed Martin with full knowledge of his antecedents. In all the politico-criminal circles of this city Martin has long been a prominent man. He was fully exposed in 1886 by a rising against his leadership in the Seventh District, on account of his vicious life, by the more respectable members of his own party, headed by Mr. Knox, the well-known hatter. Their movement was reported and commented on by the New York *Times* of September 21, 1886, in as strong language touching Martin's career as we have employed. It proved beyond question that Gilroy knew him well when he drew him out of the haunts of vice and crime and gave him a place of trust in the public service with a salary of $6,000 a year. And yet this same Gilroy had the brass to lament last winter over his and Croker's inability to do great things for the city, owing to the cruel suspicions and aspersions of a licentious press.

The work the *Evening Post* has been doing about these men and their kind is work which ought not in any highly civilized community to devolve on a journalist at all. We do not believe any civilized community has heretofore left it to its journalists. The way in which such men usually come under the notice of the press is in comment on the efforts of the police to watch them and catch them, or on the sentences passed on them by the criminal courts. Writing their history with the view of keeping them out of places of civic honor and trust is surely an unprecedented editorial experience in a great capital; and yet this is the task which New York to-day imposes on its newspapers. It is a task which, it seems, has to be performed, but it is one which no respectable journalist can perform without some shame and indignation.

MR. WARNER ON COPYRIGHT.

THE Senate has recently ordered printed, as Executive Document No. 57 of this session, "Sundry reports, prepared for the use of the International American Congress." The subjects reported upon in this pamphlet of 118 pages are weights and measures, patent laws, trade-marks, copyright (pp. 61-70), and a uniform system of customs regulations; while there is added a useful list of the treaties of the United States with foreign Powers from 1776 to 1889, prepared by the Universal Peace Union of Philadelphia. The report on copyright is from the pen of Mr. Charles Dudley Warner, and it might easily be supposed that he had written it fresh from a reading of the chapter in Mr. Spencer's 'Social Statics' which treats of "The Right of Property in Ideas." Mr. Warner shares with Herbert Spencer the feeling that modern legislation fails to give due protection to this species of property; but he is hardly just to the real advance which has been made in copyright legislation during the last twenty-five years when he says:

> "Copyright laws, as now existing in the countries most advanced in civilization, are of ancient and crude form, and indicate little of the increased wisdom and aggregated experience which have made modern statute-books admirable illustrations of an enlightened age. Regarding literary products as property, they nevertheless afford it a very limited protection, punish mildly or not at all the theft of the property, and grant to the owner and his heirs that protection for only a short time. But the most glaring relic of ancient times of ignorance and exclusiveness, when governments little considered the broad principles of universal justice, is copyright laws which protect only the owner or resident in a country, and permit its citizens to appropriate to their own profit in their factories the property of aliens. . . . In our enlightened time no one who is not interested in appropriating such property can be found to defend the semi-barbarous character of the modern copyright legislation of some countries on both sides of the Atlantic."

These words can appropriately be applied to our own copyright laws, but the implication that they are also true of the copyright legislation of the other American States is, we think, an injustice to the latter. Perhaps Mr. Warner is not aware that three of these States, Mexico, Guatemala, and Venezuela, grant, by comparatively recent legislation, copyright in perpetuity. So, also, when, in speaking of the Berne International Union, Mr. Warner says that "from this arrangement the republics of the Western Hemisphere stand aloof, presenting the anomaly to the world of communities founded upon the acknowledgment of the rights of men lagging behind in one of the essentials of liberal and enlightened government," he fails to point out the very different attitude towards the Berne Convention assumed by the United States and the South American republics. The United States, in plain language, refuses to pass such legislation as will permit it to enter the International Copyright Union, for the sole reason that it is reluctant to give up the material advantage of possessing and using the power to plunder the citizens of foreign countries of their literary property. The States of South America, on the contrary, have promptly formed an International Copyright Convention among themselves, modelled upon the Berne Convention, and apparently more liberal even than the latter as regards some of its provisions. These States are, therefore, eligible to membership in the International Union, and it is probably only a matter of time and convenience as to when they will become active members, whereas the United States is not eligible, and cannot be until there is a more thorough reform of our copyright statutes than our people seem yet sufficiently aroused to demand of Congress.

Further on in his report Mr. Warner says: "It has been suggested that an American author ought not to have a foreign ownership of his work unless he make a contract giving a foreign publisher an interest in his copyright. The suggestion is so grossly unjust that it needs but to be heard to be rejected. There is no existing relationship between authorship as a business and publishing as a business, except what may arise from contract between author and publisher. To create one by giving the publishers of one country a perpetual lien on the authorship of all other countries would be a degradation of the law-making power." We think so too, but we wish Mr. Warner had given the source of this suggestion, for we have never heard of it before, and we doubt if it originated with any South or Central American State. Indeed, we had supposed that this idea of providing for the publishers at the expense of the authors, in copyright legislation, was also peculiar to the United States. It was a provision in the Clay bill of 1837, the report on which Mr. Warner recommends to the Commission and prints as an appendix to his paper; and it may be said to be the central idea of the Chace bill now—fifty-three years later—before Congress. When Congress put copyright upon the list of subjects to be considered by the Pan-American Congress, it was an opportunity which should have been seized upon by the friends of international copyright to present to members of Congress and the delegates to the Conference a practical document in comparative jurisprudence. A report containing a careful study of the existing copyright legislation of the Latin nations of America, supported by the complete texts of all the copyright statutes of these countries, and the text of the South American Copyright Convention, properly translated and set over against our own inadequate copyright laws, would have forced upon the attention of Congress and the people the backward and discreditable position occupied by our own country in relation to this subject, and could hardly have failed to produce good results. Such a document would have pointed out the proper and dignified action which the Conference could have recommended and Congress could have taken, and it might very possibly have resulted in the first and most important step towards putting the copyright legislation of the United States in line with that of the legislation of other civilized countries upon this subject.

THE INFANT PRODIGY.

A VETERAN entered at my gate
With locks as cherry-blossoms white;
His clothes proclaimed a prosperous fate,
His boots were arrogantly bright.

The hat was glossy on his head,
Gold-rimmed his eye-glass, gold his chain,
In genial curves his waistcoat spread,
And golden-headed was his cane.

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Without a preface thus he spoke,
"I've called to get my annual due";
Whereat I too the silence broke
With, "Who, respected sir, are you?

"What is your claim against me, pray?
A many-childed man am I,
Hard-pinched my monthly bills to pay,
And prices rule perversely high."

"Not know me? Everybody knows
And gladly gives his mite," quoth he,
"Why, I'm a babe in swaddling clo'es,
I am an Infant Industry."

"Forgive me, Reverend Shape," I cried,
"You set my faith a heavy task;
This infancy which seems your pride,
Is it your *second*, may I ask?

"Or have you, where so many failed,
The key to life's Elixir found?
You look like one who never ailed,
In wind and limb sedately sound."

"You doubt my word? (Excuse these tears,
They flow for you and not for me;)
Young man, for more than seventy years
I've been an Infant Industry.

"Your father rued my helpless lot,
Lifelong he handed me his fee
Nor ever asked himself for what;
He *loved* an Infant Industry."

Quoth I, "He paid my ransom then
From further tribute, small or great;
Besides, if I can judge of men,
Since that, you've grown to man's estate."

He murmured, as I bowed him out,
"The world is getting worse and worse;
This fellow almost makes me doubt
Whether I've not been changed at nurse.

"But no, this hat, this cane, these boots,
This suit in London made by P.,
Convince me to the very roots
I am an Infant Industry."

Until he vanished from my sight
These words came floating back to me:
"Yes, 'spite of Time, in Reason's spite,
I *am* an Infant Industry!"

F. DE T.

GOVERNMENT AND TARIFF IN CANADA.

OTTAWA, April 3, 1890.

EARLY spring is the most unattractive time of the year in Ottawa. The clean hard snow of winter gives place to a slush containing in a thin stratum a season's accumulation of refuse. The city is at no time handsome, and is now untidy and confused; the country about is rusty; and from the towers of the Parliament buildings one sees little but sombre forests and dark rivers. In striking contrast are the Government buildings, grouped about the trim terrace, with its Parliamentary cricket-ground for late summer sessions; there is about them an air of British solidity and British comfort, and the most recent department building is a beautiful example of the Romanesque as applied to public purposes. Perhaps the contrast between the capital and the Capitol is not an unapt parallel to the social and political condition of the Dominion of Canada. On the one hand, the rawness of a new organization; on the other hand, a government of extraordinary precision and smoothness of operation. One cannot rid one's self of the feeling of incongruity.

The unfamiliarity of Americans with Canada is astonishing. Many thousands of us every year pass down the St. Lawrence, admire Montreal, and enter Brittany or Languedoc through the gates of Quebec; but we are hardly more ignorant of the institutions of Mexico than of those of a neighbor having thirty-five hundred miles of common boundary and a reciprocal annual trade with us of nearly forty millions. This ignorance is the more unfortunate because the Canada of 1890 in many respects closely resembles the United States of 1820. The population is, to be sure, much less, being but 5,000,000 against the 10,000,000 shown by the census of 1820; but the Canadian cities are in numbers and wealth greater than the American cities of that time. Territorially the comparison is very close. Canada has both well-organized provinces and dependent but reckless and insubordinate territories. Immense quantities of wild land still exist throughout the Dominion, and stimulate immigration and a large sense of future development. As I have watched the operation of the Government, I have even seemed to discover a division into sections not unlike that at the time of the Missouri Compromise. The maritime provinces occupy in Canadian politics much the same commercial position that New England had; Quebec, with its unique traditions and its fiery race of statesmen, resembles the South in American politics; Ontario well represents the Middle States; and Manitoba and the Territories stand for the West. The parallel is by no means fanciful. No one who looks about him in Canada can fail to see that it is a sinewy young nation, in spirit very like the early United States. The same imperfect but increasing consciousness of a place in the future history of the world animates it. The same questions arise of the development of a Federal system. The parallel is most striking in commercial and financial matters. Just now Parliament is engaged upon the tariff, and the discussion of that question is especially instructive to us; for the so-called national policy of Canada seems to be nothing more nor less than Clay's American system applied under very similar conditions.

Nevertheless, the machinery by which legislation is secured is so different from ours that it is difficult to recognize the familiar principles and arguments. Within, as without, the Parliament buildings singularly combine beauty with adaptation to their purposes: the corridors, the committee-rooms, are less magnificent than those in the Capitol at Washington, but are decidedly more convenient, and the chambers of the Senate and House of Commons are models of lightness and solidity. The Canadians understand the art of public building better than their southern neighbors. The people of Quebec, for instance, shake their heads over the three millions put into their new Provincial Parliament buildings; but for that three millions they have a Capitol far surpassing in effect the Albany State House. One of the most attractive parts of the Houses of Parliament at Ottawa is the library, housed in a most beautiful domed room and carefully arranged as a Parliamentary workshop of books. Even here one is met by the dual languages: two librarians in two offices are equally courteous, but one in French and the other in English. It is almost the same in the House of Commons: there is not only a division into parties, but each party has a French wing and an English wing, and occasionally speeches are delivered in French. So far as I can judge from observation and conversation with members, there is a higher standard of experience and public spirit among the members of Parliament than among members of our State legislatures or of Congress. Changes are less frequent—eight members of the present Parliament have sat since confederation in 1867. Several of the younger members are pointed out to me as sons of former members, and practical inheritors of their seats. I might have thought it aristocratic, but for remembering the Pennsylvania Camerons.

Certainly a far greater share of the time of the members is devoted to the public business. One member of the House and of the Ministry does, indeed, complain that the death of a collector in his district has brought upon him a series of deputations of constituents seeking the vacant office. The patronage, he says, is the most disagreeable incident of the office; but it is fortunately confined to a very few classes of officials, and vacancies are not created by any artificial means. Of the Senate it is not possible to form a judgment, inasmuch as that respectable body has adjourned for lack of business; there seems to be a general feeling, however, that the appointive life Senate is the weakest and least satisfactory part of the Government. The presence of the two houses, and of a permanent staff of officials, brings to Ottawa a very agreeable society, again suggesting Washington in 1820. The official receptions of the Governor-General and of the Prime Minister can be more general in a small capital; and the private hospitality among the people and toward visitors is most easy and delightful.

The Prime Minister is, however, "at home" rather in the House of Commons, of which he has been the recognized leader as Prime Minister during eighteen of the twenty-three years of its existence. "Sir John," as he is universally called—there is no need of adding Macdonald—and the rest of the Ministry occupy the first row of desks on the right of the Speaker. Mr. Mackenzie, the former Liberal Premier, Mr. Laurier, the nominal leader, and Mr. Blake, the actual leader of the Liberal party, with their followers, sit opposite them. The Speaker, in gown and white gloves, sits under his canopy between. In this arrangement, and in the occasional wearing of the hat during the sitting, the outward resemblance to the British House of Commons ceases. Members lounge in and out and read the newspapers or write letters during the session, as in Washington. In the procedure one at once recognizes a different system. It is not the frequent use of the "Honorable Member" or the "Right Honorable Member" so much as the formal questions put to the Minister and the courteous references to the "Government," which mark the outward side of responsible government. In the delicate and somewhat opinionated face of Sir John one reads the conscious enjoyment of power; but his manner is singularly quiet and almost deferential. The Ministry as a whole seems to me equal in ability and superior in debating power to most presidential cabinets, and well it may be: every member is an experienced Parliamentarian, and must be able to defend his department and his party on the floor; and many of the thirteen Ministers have seen years of executive service. A good Minister, so long as he holds his seat in Parliament, is likely to continue in office, or to be transferred to a more important department.

The present stage of the tariff debate does not bring out the leaders. I have been, therefore, quite as much interested in the Railroad Committee, one of the great organizations for preparing legislation. Imagine a body of about one hundred—one-half the whole House—in informal session, at a time and place announced by public notice, to consider a specified bill. Any person interested may be heard, and the interests of the railroads are represented by counsel. The question is considered on its me-

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rits, without any application of rules; each clause of the bill is read and voted on, and the final decision of the Committee is taken by a public yea-and-nay vote. If a proposition is clearly not supported, it is simply not reported to the House; should it be reported, the later debate is upon details. Such is the simple, effective, and public process of sifting measures in great committees. Of course no bill can be reported against which the Ministry protest. The Prime Minister is present, but does not commit the Ministry to or against a proposition unless it clearly affects great lines of policy.

This elasticity is characteristic of responsible government, and greatly facilitates legislation. Party lines are not drawn on unimportant questions. There is little manœuvring for position and "putting the other party in a hole"; but when the Ministry adopts a policy, its supporters must follow, or cause the downfall of the Administration. To an outsider there seems very little contrast between the Conservatives and the Liberals. On questions of individual rights, of the public service, there seems no essential difference. There is, however, a strong antagonism on commercial questions. Here again the Liberals have had to yield to the clamor for State assistance to railroads, but they are now standing out with all their power against the tariff policy of the Government.

The political development of Canada was so slow that an independent financial and commercial policy was not possible till after 1846 and the adoption of free trade by England. To Canada then, as to the young United States a century ago, the policy of revenue duties on imports seemed the only feasible one. When, therefore, power was given the Confederation in 1867 to lay such duties as it might see fit, there was no expectation of a protective tariff. The reciprocity treaty with the United States had just expired, and the policy of the Canadian Government was to renew it. On both sides of the line came a change of policy; the *Alabama* controversy prevented negotiation; the fishery difficulty was unsettled; the war tariff continued in the United States, thus shutting out many Canadian exports. Canada herself began to lay high revenue duties, eventually rising to a maximum of 25 per cent. and looking towards the establishment of manufactures. This was the so-called "national policy"; it seems to me in essence like the countervailing legislation of the United States from 1815 to 1830. After 1878, the duties were gradually increased, and the present Canadian tariff in many respects approximates to that of the United States. There is even a duty on books.

The present state of the tariff discussion in the United States, and the recurring fishery troubles, have persuaded the Conservative Ministry that there is no immediate hope of any reciprocal arrangement; and a new tariff is now proposed by the Ministry, and will doubtless pass. It embodies two principles: an increase of duties, and duties on American food products. Like the United States in 1824, an agricultural country is trying to establish itself in home manufactures. Unlike the United States at the same time, it cuts off those articles of food which may advantageously be imported. It is a return to the Corn Laws. At the same moment Congress is legislating against the agricultural products which Canada is well situated to produce. Mr. C. C. Colby, President of the Privy Council, an American by birth, and held to be one of the most sincere and intelligent of Canadian statesmen, voices the policy of the Government thus: "Free trade between Canada and the United States, in all agricultural products, would be the worst possible thing that could happen to the farmers of Canada at the present time." Of course objections pour in from lumbermen and fishermen who have long depended on certain preferred American imports; but the country is committed to the doctrine of all-round protection. The probability that the United States will still further discriminate against Canadian products is foreseen and accepted. The vigorous protests of the Liberals are based upon the unfortunately selected ground that their country, especially Ontario, is retrograding, and has fallen behind her neighbors.

The effect of this double retaliatory policy upon both sides of the line is not difficult to predict. The United States will lose the custom of Canada, and must deny herself valuable imports from Canada. The friendly relations which ought to exist between two neighboring countries, so nearly alike in tradition and interests, are more and more strained. For this unfortunate result the United States is primarily responsible, by its long refusal to cultivate advantageous trade with Canada; but the United States will suffer far less in a struggle of tariff against tariff. Canada is essentially a poor country. There are thousands of industrious people, but not one good farm-house visible from the railroad between Quebec and Ottawa, three hundred miles. The average wealth of the nation is certainly much below that of the United States, and the debt is proportionately much greater. Enterprise it has, Gallic spirit and Anglo-Saxon tenacity—otherwise the country would have remained a wilderness. But the sun must shine as warmly on the Saskatchewan as on the Mississippi, and the corn must ripen in Manitoba as it does in Illinois, before Canada can support a manufacturing population to compete with that of the United States.

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

FROM THE CAPE TO ST. HELENA.

SAINT HELENA, February 20, 1890.

AT last the old *Pensacola* finds herself again in the roads of St. Helena, where she dropped anchor this morning about eight, in the little bay of Jamestown in the northwest of the island. I say again, because she has been here once before at least—on the way home from the Asiatic Squadron six or seven years ago. Jamestown has changed but little in the interval, and the change has been that of decline rather than progress. But more of that another time. Our voyage from the Cape took just a fortnight under sail—life at sea with ideal conditions.

I do not now recall whether in a previous letter I alluded to the signal service rendered the Expedition by Dr. David Gill, the Astronomer Royal at the Cape. But even if I did, it should again be mentioned here, embracing as it did courtesies and facilities nowhere else extended to the scientific staff or any of its members. Ample rooms at the Observatory were assigned for the work of the Expedition; the magnetic instruments were mounted in small tents in the Observatory grounds; and Mr. Preston set the Peirce pendulums swinging only a few feet removed from the precise spot occupied by the pendulum-observers, Foster and Sabine, a half-century ago. Both H. M. Astronomer and Mrs. Gill have the warmest thanks of the officers of the *Pensacola* and the Expedition for their unfailing hospitality during our sojourn at the Cape.

Before leaving the Observatory, opportunity offered, by the kindness of Dr. Gill and Mr. Woods, for testing one of the large lenses furnished the Expedition by the Gundlach Optical Company for photographing the sun's corona. It is a lens of unusual purity, and was made from the new Jena glass. The test was made upon the Orion stars, in work similar to that which Dr. Gill is now conducting as the photographic extension of Argelander's 'Durchmusterung' to the south pole of the heavens. The performance of the lens showed qualities quite remarkable, both as to the extent of its photographic field and the rapidity of its action. More the pity that it should have had no chance at the corona at Cape Ledo.

The resources of the excellent library at the Cape Observatory were freely and gladly drawn upon by Professor Bigelow, who spent nearly all his time there, hard at work upon the theoretic researches upon the corona and terrestrial magnetism, the beginnings of which are outlined in his paper already published by the Smithsonian Institution. To say much about this work as yet would, perhaps, be premature; but if the key to the solution of the complex phenomena of the corona and terrestrial magnetism has not actually been found, it surely looks strongly that way.

Among the great variety of works undertaken by Prof. Abbe at the Cape was an attempt to interest the scientific gentlemen of the Colony and the colonial authorities in the formation and permanent establishment of a weather service on the model of those already in efficient operation in Europe, America, Japan, and elsewhere. To this end, one meeting of the South African Philosophical Society was quite given over to Prof. Abbe, who delivered an address on the modern weather service, which the Society is printing. Meteorological observations have, of course, been made for years at a number of colonial stations, under the superintendence of Dr. Gill, and the time may not yet be ripe for that amplification of the service which the organization of systematic weather predictions would entail. However, the seeds at least have been sown; it remains to be seen in what sort of ground.

I dare say the idea of a Philosophical Society in the south of Africa will strike most Americans as no less an incongruity than the idea of a Philosophical Society in Idaho or the Indian Territory would the average Bostonian. As I may presume that a few facts about it will find a welcome place in the *Nation*, I will say that (1) there is such a society, (2) its membership is about one hundred, (3) it publishes an excellent series of transactions now printing in the fifth volume. The Society was founded by the Right Hon. Sir Bartle Frere, F.R.S., nearly fifteen years ago, and he became its first President. The office cannot be held by the same person longer than two years, and the successors of the founder have been Dr. Gill, Mr. J. G. Gamble, Roland Trimen, Esq., F.R.S., and Prof. P. MacOwan, F.L.S., the present Director of the Botanical Gardens and Curator of the Cape Government Herbarium. He is a thorough botanist, and probably the only person living in the Colony capable of completing the Flora Capensis, which, if not done now, must likely lie over for another generation. It would seem appropriate that the Government should relieve him of such part of the current routine as others might well perform, in order that he might complete the task of the remaining volumes, and bring the rich flora of the south of Africa within reach of the world.

But I was going on to say that, glancing through the fascicules of the transactions of the Philosophical Society of South Africa, I see at random such papers as the following:

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On continuous girders, arched ribs, and tension circles; some observations on witchcraft in Basutoland; on the limestones, granites, and gneiss of the Colony; on the stone implements of South Africa; on free rigid rotation, summer and winter temperature in South Africa; note on *Tinea vastella* (a South African moth whose larva feeds on horn); contributions to the South African coleopterous fauna; a great variety of philological notes; and 'The Orchids of the Cape Peninsula,' the last a masterly work of about 200 pages, finely printed, with thirty or forty partly colored plates, and which compares very favorably with European contributions to orchidology.

At the Cape it was next to impossible to hold the Expedition together; in fact, no attempt was made to do so. All were free to pursue the lines most agreeable. One detachment proceeded at an early day to Kimberley, six or seven hundred miles into the interior, to investigate the diamond fields and report upon present methods of separating the stones from the "blue" or diamondiferous rock-earth. Many specimens were obtained for the National Museum. The Expedition is greatly indebted to Mr. A. Difford, Secretary of the Department of the Cape Government Railway, for numerous courtesies.

The naturalists found much to interest them and to occupy their time to the full. Collections were prosecuted along various lines. The members of the Philosophical Society, knowing well the fauna and flora of the colony, were able to give much assistance and advice, and they have the best thanks of the Expedition for the services they so willingly rendered. In particular the Expedition is indebted to the Rev. G. H. R. Fisk for a very valuable collection of tortoises, embracing *Testudo pardalis*, *T. angulata*, *T. trimeni*, and *T. tentoria*; *Homopus areolatus*, *H. femoralis*, and *H. signatus* (the representative of these last being very rare away from the Cape), and forming a perfect series of the South African *Homopus*. If I do not mistake, complete series have heretofore been presented to the French zoölogists and to the British Museum alone; but some of them arrived only in alcohol. We may have better luck with our own, as they have so far done well at sea, and will, I hope, reach their Washington quarters alive.

Both naturalist and anthropologist found the outlook so promising in the Colony that they applied for discharge from the Expedition there, in order to continue their work in the Cape peninsula. The opportunities were, indeed, rare. A great exploring expedition was about organizing under the auspices of the English syndicate to which the King of the Matabele has granted unusual privileges and concessions; and Mr. Brown, the naturalist, will accompany this expedition in an official capacity. The region has for the most part been untravelled by white men, and is represented as very rich in material for naturalist and anthropologist, especially the latter. I think I have not previously alluded to the anthropological work of the Expedition in Angola, which might have been better had our stay been longer. Physical measurements were made of the Umbundus, Cabindas, Bailundas, Quissamas, and others. Collections of folk-lore and mind-products were attended to, and materials for a general study of fetishes obtained. Also, the manual of the British Society was taken as a guide in gathering information about a great variety of subjects which I need not detail here.

Our reception at Saint Helena has been very warm, and the *Pensacola* is evidently very welcome. Gov. Grey-Wilson some months ago, acting on the information very wrongly given in Whitaker to the effect that last December's eclipse would be total at Saint Helena, most courteously offered the American Expedition the civilities and hospitality of the island for an observing station—an offer which we are most sorry that celestial circumstances over which we had no control prevented our accepting; the more so now that we have seen what a charming region the interior of Saint Helena really is—so different from the forbidding cliffs which continually frown above Jamestown. The Governor is now temporarily absent in London; but the Expedition has found no want unsupplied, the Acting Governor, Mr. Antrobus, having cordially afforded all possible attentions which might in any wise serve to facilitate our work. Mr. Preston and Prof. Bigelow are confined every night with the pendulum-work at the Castle, where excellent surroundings are commanded. Prof. Abbe is roaming over the island, barometer in hand. After a week or more, a secondary gravity-station will be established at Longwood, not far from the spot where Napoleon lived and died. By the 10th of March the *Pensacola* will have sailed for Ascension—a week's voyage by the trades nearly directly northwest.

DAVID P. TODD.

Correspondence.

MR. HAMERTON AND LONDON.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I perceive that by a slip in your notice of the *Portfolio* I am made to say that I never lived in *England* for more than three months at a time. The passage incorrectly quoted said that I had never lived in *London* for more than that space at a time, which is quite bad enough without exaggerating it, and gives an arm against me to the very few enemies I have. The truth is, that London never suited my health. However, I made rather a long stay there (for me) towards the close of last year, and bore it much better than might have been expected. The climate of Autun is severe in its extremes of heat and cold, and is said to kill off delicate people quickly, yet, for some reason that nobody can explain, it suits me better than any other. I am not what is called delicate, though unable to endure for long the noise and atmosphere of London.

Sincerely yours, P. G. HAMERTON.

AUTUN, April 9, 1890.

"A LITTLE STORY ABOUT ORES."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Yesterday a friend called my attention to your editorial of April 17 under this heading, which, following a letter entitled "A Nickel Paradox" addressed last month by "W." to the *Nation*, states that I am now striving to have nickel ores put upon the free list.

To this totally fallacious statement you add other fallacies; and since the whole is intended to injure not me alone, but also and principally the system of protection to home industry, I thus reply:

(1.) You say that I openly confessed that I had fixed a former tariff to suit myself, and that I have again, with Mr. McKinley's coöperation, fixed the now proposed tariff. If I had fixed a tariff to suit myself, and had mentioned it, I should have *stated* it like a man, and not *confessed* it like a thief; but I never fixed a tariff to suit myself nor made any such avowal.

(a.) The existing tariff on nickel, nickel ores, nickel alloys, etc., which is doubtless the tariff you mean, I have always held to be grossly absurd.

(b.) Mr. McKinley and his Committee refuse to adopt the rates which I have recommended, and adopt others which I oppose.

The phraseology of the existing tariff law, defining the several forms in which nickel may be imported, is that which I suggested; the rates are not.

(2.) You say "it was stated on the floor of the United States Senate in January, 1883," that I was producing nickel "at 50 to 70 cents per pound," and with touching credulity you offer this partisan statement "on the floor of the Senate" as conclusive, though it was made by a man entirely ignorant of the business, and was in fact false.

You say that "by the efforts of the Connecticut Senators," the nickel duties "were reduced in 1883 from 30 cents on the ore and 20 cents on the alloys of nickel to the existing rates of 15 cents." This is erroneous. There never was a duty of 30 cents on the ore, but that rate was on the finished metal nickel, as even a Connecticut Senator could have told you, and the reduction to 15 cents in 1883 was apparently effected by an unworthy trick which its author will scarcely thank you for bringing into notice. The Conference Committee had before it for reconciliation the rate of 25 cents per pound on nickel which had been passed by one house, and the rate of 20 cents which had been passed by the other house; it reported neither of those rates, nor anything between them, but a new rate discordant with and beyond the limits of both. In the turmoil of final passage, this insult to both houses, which you attribute, perhaps justly, to "the efforts of the Connecticut Senators," was unnoticed, and the trick succeeded. Furthermore, in their ignorance or negligence, or urged "by the efforts of the Connecticut Senators," that Committee fixed one and the same rate of duty, namely, 15 cents per pound, on nickel in ore, nickel in matte, and refined metallic nickel. And this is the outrageous absurdity which you have been led to believe I "*fixed to suit myself.*"

(3.) You say that so long as it was possible for him to work his Lancaster County mine, "Mr. Wharton wanted the highest possible tariff on the importation of all competing ores," but that he now, "so far as nickel ores are concerned, has become a rampant free-trader."

Having explained above that the existing absurdly high duty on nickel ore was not my work or wish, I now add that I have never suggested or desired that nickel ore should enter free of duty. In all my oral or written communications to the Ways and Means Committee, I have taken the ground that nickel ore should pay duty. This not only because of the injury that free importations might cause to my own mine in Lancaster County, Penn. (which you may regret to learn is still working, and has been working without a day's interruption except Sundays for many years, and is now being sunk to greater depth), but also because of the discouragement to other owners of American nickel deposits who wish them opened. The Canadian mines near Sudbury, which, in your large liberality, you call "American," are certainly good. I have more than once visited that region, have used its ores and mattes, have had many offers of nickel deposits there, and think seriously of opening mines there for the purpose of supplying in part my nickel works at Camden, N. J.; yet I have constant-

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ly resisted the contention that the ores or mattes of Canada or of any other foreign country should enter our country free.

The Cleveland *Iron Trade Review* says: "Nickel ore is to come in free, under the new tariff bill, according to reports. This will please Mr. S. J. Ritchie and his Ohio stockholders in the Sudbury nickel and copper mines of Canada." Here you have the source of the clamor for duty-free nickel ore which I have in vain resisted. It is said that Senator Sherman is one of the owners of the Sudbury mines with Mr. Ritchie and other Ohio men, and that he is their advocate at Washington. This I cannot, of course, assert.

(4.) You say that I published a pamphlet setting forth in the strongest terms the benefits to arise from complete reciprocity of trade between the United States and Canada, but, that event being distant, I initiated the good work by persuading the Ways and Means Committee to remove the duty on Canadian nickel ores. Now, the pamphlet you allude to was, unfortunately for your argument, put out in 1879, several years before nickel ore was known to exist at Sudbury, and was simply an "Address of the Industrial League to its Constituents," a minor feature of which was the suggestion of a Zollverein between this country and Canada. My views are not changed on that subject, except that as the practical difficulties become more apparent of agreeing upon schedules, of harmonizing appraisers owing different allegiance, and of dividing joint revenue, I have come to prefer absolute political union with Canada to any half-way measure.

(5.) You expect me to show consistency by having an amendment offered to the McKinley bill putting iron ore and copper ore on the free list, because you assume, erroneously as I have shown, that I have labored to put nickel ore on the free list. It would be much to my advantage if iron ore were free, and it appeared to me quite unfair in 1883 to raise the duty on iron ore while lowering the duties on all its products; yet I have always refused to join any movement for removing the duty on iron ore, thinking that national welfare calls for the development of our own ores, and that miners merit a share of the ruling tariff protection. As for copper ores, it is not for me to speak upon a subject which is so much better understood by other men.

(6.) You say that the 15 cents per pound now levied on nickel in ore equals 35 per cent. ad valorem. This is erroneous, for 15 cents per pound on nickel in ore equals, not 35 per cent., but about 450 per cent., as I proceed to show.

The Sudbury ore, the only foreign nickel ore ever brought into this country, except a few sample casks from New Caledonia, can be put on cars at mines for about $3 per ton of 2,240 pounds, and it contains by average about 4 per cent. of nickel, or 90 pounds of nickel per ton. The duty on that 90 pounds is 15 cents per pound, or $13.50, which is 450 per cent., supposing the nickel to be the sole value in that $3 ore. But, in fact, the ore usually contains about twice as much copper as nickel, and the nickel cannot therefore be reckoned as worth $3, unless by marking up profit; so that the duty on nickel ore is even higher than 450 per cent.

(7.) You assume that the United States Mint suffers under the extortions of an American nickel monopolist. Passing by my demonstration, in the little treatise from which you quote, that tariff-ridden America has bought its nickel for coinage much lower than free-trade (in nickel) Germany bought its nickel for coinage, I point out to you that the United States Mint buys its supplies from the lowest bidder after due advertisement; that it has frequently bought foreign nickel, and that it now has on hand a large quantity of nickel copper-coin blanks made of foreign nickel. It is safe to say that no one ever did or ever will grow rich by supplying nickel to the United States Mint.

To conclude: There is probably no article in the tariff schedule which affords to the free-traders more frequent temporary enjoyment than does nickel. They do not understand it, but they feel sure that there is some deep iniquity connected with it, because they suppose that I am wealthy, and they assume that my supposititious income is derived from making nickel, though my total gross annual sales of it are but $150,000. I am alone in the business, because no one else dares encounter its difficulties, and no one ever speaks in my behalf. Therefore, from time to time, some hot "little barking creature," to use again my own words, which you seem to find attractive, jumps in to attack me, thinking that here is a safe chance to show valor. Occasionally, if I condescend to notice him, he retires more or less sadly, with broken teeth, from his enterprise.

JOSEPH WHARTON.

PHILADELPHIA, April 23, 1890.

[We frankly apologize to Mr. Wharton for the misrepresentations into which we have been led concerning his attitude towards the duty on nickel ore and concerning his mining industry. If we return to the subject of his letter, it will not be for the sake of excusing ourselves in these particulars.—ED. NATION.]

INFANTS' FOOD VS. INFANT INDUSTRIES.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In one of your recent numbers you call attention to the duty on milk-sugar, and speak of it as chiefly used in homœopathic pills. Have you not overlooked another and more important use which clearly points to the propriety of making it free—namely, in the preparation of cow's milk for infants not nourished by their mothers? It is surely bad statesmanship to tax a substance of such importance in the feeding of infants, while they die yearly by the tens of thousands simply from improper food. Humanity calls upon us to do all we can to save the infants and let the industry take care of itself. J. A. JEFFRIES, M.D.

BOSTON, April 25, 1890.

A SIDE LIGHT ON GREEK ART.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I should differ with M. Reinach on any archæological question with the greatest diffidence, if I differed at all, and I will not maintain against his opinion that the groups of statuettes I alluded to in a former letter are made at Smyrna. My information at Athens was that they had been sent from Smyrna, and were seized at Peiræus on account of the irregularity of their consignment leading to their being examined. It is immaterial to the point at issue whether they are made at Smyrna or Athens, but the same search which could disclose no evidence of their production at the former place was equally unsuccessful at the latter. We know where the Tanagra figurines come from, and we are equally sure of those of Myrina, Megara, Taranto, etc., and an expert has no difficulty in telling the origin of any individual case of either variety; but the provenance of these groups of several large figures is a mystery which could not have been so long preserved in the case of any possible excavations. M. Reinach has conducted one of the very few systematic and scientifically correct excavations of the cemeteries which render these works of antique art, and is therefore in a position to give an authoritative opinion of a peculiar and exceptional value, on grounds which no simple dealer in them can ever acquire, to say nothing of his complete archæological education, in which advantage his only rival among the dealers is Prof. Roussopoulos of Athens, whose judgment on the groups is the same as M. Reinach's. When last in Athens, I saw at the Professor's house one of the counterfeits which he had bought for 300 francs, knowing it to be a counterfeit (as did the seller), and desiring to have it as an example of the degree to which the imitation had been carried and as a lesson to intending purchasers. If it had been genuine, it would have sold readily for 2,000 francs. But it must not be supposed that these forgeries have in all cases caught the spirit of Greek art so well that they have an intrinsic value as art, for some of them are so bad that they would be almost worthless if genuine, and are quite so as imitations.

It would be quite impossible for the most dexterous contrabandist to carry on excavations of magnitude sufficient to supply the immense number of these questionable statuettes (which are not all or nearly all groups) without coming under the knowledge of the local authorities; for the region from which they can be derived is limited. The production has been going on for years and in great numbers. I am told that at Rome a single American gentleman was victimized several years ago to the tune of $15,000 by a well-known Athenian dealer, to whom most of the doubtful (not to beg the question of authenticity) examples can be traced. Perhaps the facility with which they are exported from the place of origin (be it Asia Minor or Athens) is explained by the proofs that might be afforded to the Custom-house officers of the modern character of the articles. It would otherwise be extremely difficult for the dealer in question to carry on such extensive operations as we know to have taken place without being caught, and, so far as I know, the case M. Reinach alludes to is the only one in which this was the case. At Athens or Peiræus it would be impossible even to do this, but I am informed that the exportation, when from Greece, takes place from the Gulf of Corinth, probably from Patras. The Greek Custom-house officers at Peiræus are very rigorous, and not, as a rule, accessible to bribery, and a systematic corruption would certainly be discovered in three months, for, under the regimen of Tricoupis, it is hunted very closely, and the responsible heads of the Custom-house at Peiræus are incorruptible.

I think M. Reinach is unjust to the Greek Government. The law punishes any one who sells a counterfeit antique as genuine, and imposes a fine, besides obliging the seller to return the price; and the Greeks are opposed to the counterfeiting, as it diminishes the value of their own collections by making the objects common. They do not regard it as a real good fortune that the strangers are put off with forgeries, and the fact is that the greater part by far of the sales are effected out of Greece, at Rome, Berlin, Paris, etc., etc., and numbers of them are in the hands of dealers who naturally make a great outcry over the impeachment of the genuineness of the works. But as there are thousands of dollars annually expended by American amateurs in such matters, it is well to insist on the fact that the greater part of the

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figurines sold as of Asia Minor and Tanagra are forgeries; and from many years' experience in those regions I feel justified in saying that the only dealers who can be trusted in Athens are Roussopoulos and the brothers Dracopoulos. The Americans who go to Athens will buy and can always carry away small objects, but they must not trust to their wits or to local guarantees, which are worth nothing.

The same system of counterfeiting extends to coins, and I am told that an American physician who makes a specialty of coins relating to Æsculapius is able to obtain new, and often unique, specimens as often as he goes to Athens. The facilities for the fabrication of the forgeries are very great, and the British Museum, *with its facsimiles, adds to the security. It is* profitable for the dealers in antiquities, who, with occasional exceptions, are people without scruple or moderation, to keep up the system of counterfeiting as offering extraordinary profits and no risk, for the demonstration of the falsity of a piece is impossible, as resting on personal opinions which the customer cannot control or determine the value of. If the counterfeits were made in accordance with the motives of good Greek art, no one would be injured by them any more than by copies of Raphael; but when they are only superficially in agreement, and have nothing but the most non-essential qualities of it, they only perplex and bewilder the student. Good, authentic copies are easily to be had, and, as far as their artistic value goes, are as good as the originals; but when it comes to drawing conclusions on Greek art from forged material, I must say that it is worse than forging wills or bank-notes.—Yours truly, W. J. Stillman.

Rome, April 8, 1890.

A NEEDED REFORM.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Permit me through your columns to call attention to a branch of the public service which in my opinion needs complete reorganization on business principles. I refer to our consular service. As the law now stands, the principal duty of a consular officer is the legalization of invoices. Every business man in New York, as well as every appraising officer, will, for reasons satisfactory to himself, bear me out in the statement that this consular legalization, except in isolated cases, is an empty farce and a disgrace to our national intelligence. In most consulates the consul reaps a petty political reward—paid from the pockets of American consumers—by reading newspapers or absenting himself from his office, while the vice-consul, an overworked, shabby, and half-starved-looking patriot, as fast as they come in, certifies over his seal and signature to the accuracy of the prices quoted on a score of invoices, on whose contents we collect an *ad-valorem duty.*

The conscientious consul (and perhaps there are a half-dozen such on the Continent, the most eminent among them being the present Consul-General at Berlin) labors under three disadvantages:

(1.) He is not allowed to stay in office long enough to become a real expert in the lines of goods shipped from his district.

(2.) His efforts are completely negatived, through a lack of uniform system, by his ignorant, negligent, or criminal colleagues.

(3.) No evidence, however complete, if furnished by him, receives any consideration from customs officials. This is due either to the prevailing idea as to the worthlessness of consular corrections, a complete antagonism between our consular and customs services, or to the jealousy of dishonest sub-appraisers who do not like light thrown on what they consider their "private snap."

Under existing circumstances it is not unnatural that men, appointed for political reasons and not from fitness or experience, who know that they are not standing on their own merits, but are dependent on influence in Washington, yield to the temptation to enjoy their "holiday abroad," to draw their salaries in full whether present or absent, to forget the serious duties which they have theoretically been sent to perform, and to heap as much as possible on the aching shoulders of the poor vice-consul, who, in many cases, is compelled to give his superior officer a receipt for more salary than he receives.

Is this not a sad picture of the present state of an honorable branch of the national service? And yet every shade and color of it is true to life. The present system has been given every chance. Consulates have sprung up at every trade centre, and naturally the consul has been looked upon as a spy by the people among whom he lives. In Saxony alone (and it is about as large as Connecticut) there are at present *six consulates.* What wonder that the dignity of the service has been debased?

But the remedy? Ask any business man, honest or dishonest. Ask any man, woman, or child who can think. The law as it stands, in defence of an ad-valorem tariff, sends little men on little salaries to every trade centre in Europe to do a work which, with a few honorable exceptions, they either cannot or will not do. The law contemplates coöperation between the consular and customs services. Instead there is antagonism and ill will for which, I must admit, appraising officers are almost entirely to blame. The remedy? *Specific duty.* The result? The complete doing away with consular authentication of invoices, the suppressing of four-fifths of the useless consulates now in existence, the raising of the tone of the consular service by placing it on a permanent footing and making it a training school for the diplomatic service, and last—but not least—the reduction of fraud to a minimum in the New York Custom-house.

H. G. Vaughan.

Hotel Bellevue, Dresden, April 14, 1890.

GEN. GRANT'S SCOTCH DEFAMER ONCE MORE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Abusing all decent credibility, and palming off malice for facts, Sir William Fraser, as I pointed out some weeks ago, has thought fit to represent Gen. Grant as an ignoramus of the grossest, and a braggart nothing short of fatuous. This yelping at the heels of a dead lion will, with many over here, doubtless redound to the credit of the yelper; and so, doubtless, will the commentary on his unseemly detraction with which he has just been suffered to soil the pages of *Notes and Queries.* On that commentary I would be allowed to offer a few remarks.

In a former letter I rehearsed, on Sir William Fraser's unsubstantiated warrant, two anecdotes, each of them turning on a question said to have been addressed by Gen. Grant to the late Duke of Wellington. The Duke, on being interrogated touching the first anecdote, knew nothing about it, we are told by his self-styled interrogator, and went on to relate something wholly different, except in being injurious to the General, as what "happened." So much we learn from the anecdotist's 'Words on Wellington.'

The question which, it is there asserted, was new to the Duke was: "My Lord, I have heard that your father was a military man. Was that the case?" But, on recent reflection, succeeding professed investigation, Sir William Fraser is not satisfied that we therein have a fiction. His amended conclusion is, that "the Duke had forgotten the first story, or perhaps had not heard the inquiry." Thus, the second story, the one alleged to have been told by the Duke, and told by him as a substitute for the first, being accepted, though no longer as a substitute, but as independent, the Duke's memory is, in one instance, arbitrarily relied on, but, in another instance, arbitrarily refused reliance. Wholly at variance with this is what is found in 'Words on Wellington,' *where it is distinctly implied, as regards* the first story, after it had wrought the harm for which it was intended, that, "in the interests of truth," it should be set aside as pure invention.

This position surrendered, Sir William Fraser now says, with the imaginative assurance engendered by a sense of *impasse:* "The question so simply put by Gen. Grant caused, no doubt, great merriment." His belief in the tale rests, he confesses, on the faith of a "friend," by whom it was communicated to him. But whether that friend had the tale from another friend, and he from another, and so on indefinitely, till some one is reached who was never with the Duke and the General when they were together, we are left to conjecture. On the whole, until we are better informed, it still seems quite safe to deem the mysterious original informant as having only the sort of entity which attached to Mrs. Harris, in the critical estimation of Betsy Prig. What between his reckoning it a proud thing to cut the comb of an American at all hazards, and the ethical lubricity which has been brought home to him, Sir William Fraser appears to entertain substantially the same notion of a patriot that Sir Henry Wotton entertained of an ambassador, "vir bonus, peregre missus ad mentiendum reipublicæ causa."

Taking it for granted that Gen. Grant really asked the late Duke of Wellington whether his father was a military man, Sir William Fraser speculates that his "intention was to inquire if the first Duke had had a military education. As we should say, 'Was he an Oxford man, or a Christchurch man, or an Eton man?' the Americans, in speaking of a successful general, would say, I presume, 'Was he a West-Point man?'" In more of its acceptations than one, here is a presumption in abundance. Yet the crutch will look strong enough to those for whose inspection it is designed.

Weak argument failing, next there is resort to something even worse: "That any one in possession of his senses ever seriously believed that Gen. Grant had never heard of the Duke of Wellington, is beneath the nadir of human stupidity." That Sir William Fraser, when he wrote his book, must have been traversing an unlucid interval, and must have touched the very bottom of the abyss which he speaks of, is, then, a matter that we may be as certain about as we choose. A Scotchman, unless one out of a host, on retailing a joke, or delivering himself of anything equally recondite, or not altogether as plain as a pikestaff, never fails of supplementing it with an elucidation, which it is a mercy if he does not reiterate to tediousness. It is useless for the anecdotist to deny that he took in their strict literal sense the words attributed to Gen. Grant. So they were taken by the writer of a leading article in the London *Daily News;* and so they would be taken by "any one in possession of his senses"

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who was not bent on defending what he knew to be indefensible. Moreover, why should they have "caused, no doubt, great merriment," or any merriment whatever, if, on the assumption of their having been spoken, they had not been understood just as a wriggler has it that they would be understood only by a lunatic?

Sir William Fraser, as he apprises us, conducted Gen. Grant over the Houses of Parliament, but heard from his lips nothing more than "the historical words, 'Sir, I thank you.'" Is this meant for "wut"? "Mr. Comklin [Conkling], who accompanied him, asked a number of questions, all of which, I need not say, showed intelligence and appreciation." To speak of an American, in compliment, much as one would speak of a Zulu or a Maori, is, for a Briton, as many of us are aware from personal experience, well nigh the utmost stretch of conventional courtesy. Sooth to say, the "Yankee" who has to do with his unamiable foreign cousins, if, on the one hand, he is not made a butt by malevolent contempt, and, on the other hand, escapes being patronized superciliously, has reason to account himself exceptionally fortunate.

Your obedient servant,

FITZEDWARD HALL.

MARLESFORD, ENGLAND, March 30, 1890.

FEAR, IN THE SENSE OF *FEAR FOR*.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In Masson's Life of Milton, vol. ii., p. 81, is a foot-note containing the words, "Doctor Deodate does something fear her"—quoted from a letter of Lady Brilliana, 1638—in which the meaning is evidently "fear for."

Your usually careful correspondent, "F. H.," should have qualified his assertion that this sense of the word has been "overpassed by the lexicographers," since it is noticed by Webster and the Imperial, both giving the same illustration, from Shakspere.

When your correspondent says, "Nowhere, perhaps, but in America, and among the most illiterate Englishmen, does one hear the like of 'I sleep *home*,'" does he mean to fix the stigma of such language upon Americans *as a class*, without regard to the question of education? If so, it would be well to prove the charge by citations from a few Americans who have an acknowledged standing in our literature.

W. H. JOHNSON.

GRANVILLE, O.

Notes.

G. P. PUTNAM'S SONS have in press 'Boston Unitarianism,' by Octavius B. Frothingham; 'The Trials of a Country Parson,' by the Rev. Augustus Jessopp; 'Parsifal: Richard Wagner as a Theologian,' by Albert Ross Parsons; 'Maimonides,' an essay by Rabbi Louis Grossmann; 'A Son of Issachar,' by Elbridge S. Brooks; 'The English Novel in the Time of Shakspere,' by J. J. Jusserand; and 'The Othello of Tomaso Salvini,' a study by Edward T. Mason.

A new edition of Trelawny's 'Adventures of a Younger Son' will be published immediately by Macmillan & Co., forming the first volume of "The Adventure Series." The same firm announce a cheap edition, "limited to 100,000 copies," of 'Tom Brown's School Days,' uniform in style with their paper-covered editions of Charles Kingsley's novels.

The 'Economic and Social History of New England (1620-1789),' by William B. Weeden, a work in two volumes, will shortly be published by Houghton, Mifflin & Co., along with 'John Jay,' by George Pellew, in the "American Statesman" series; a new edition of the 'Life of Gen. Nathanael Greene,' in three volumes; select 'Tales of New England,' by Sarah Orne Jewett; and 'Liberal Living upon Narrow Means,' by Mrs. Christine Terhune Herrick.

Fords, Howard & Hulbert announce 'Midnight Talks at the Club,' by Amos K. Fiske.

'Corn and Poppies,' a new volume of verse by Mr. Cosmo Monkhouse, perhaps best known to American readers as an art critic, will be published shortly in London by Mr. Elkin Mathews. There will be a large-paper edition, which will contain a frontispiece etched by Mr. William Strang.

Mr. Charles Eyre Pascoe's unconventional guide-book, 'London of To-day' (Boston: Roberts Bros.), reaches with the present year a sixth edition, much rewritten and reillustrated, but keeping well to the old lines of topical arrangement. One would like sectional maps for use in the several walks described, and an index; but this last can hardly be expected in a handbook which refers you to previous editions for details omitted in the latest.

Estes & Lauriat have in press, by arrangement with the author, a translation of Camille Flammarion's 'Urania,' illustrated with half-tone cuts from drawings by eminent French artists.

To the sixth volume of the collected writings of De Quincey (Macmillan) Prof. Masson gives the title of 'Historical Essays and Researches,' arranging the several contributions to *Blackwood* in chronological order, from "Homer and the Homeridæ" to "Cicero" and "The Cæsars" and the "Philosophy of Roman History." They make a homogeneous collection in which learning and speculation are mingled in readable proportions.

'Stage-Land' (of which Henry Holt & Co. have just issued an American edition with illustrations a little reduced in size, but none the worse) we praised when it appeared in London six months ago. It is a very clever skit on the contemporary theatre, written out of the fulness of knowledge, and with a humor easier, more natural, and more effective than that to be found in Mr. Jerome's other books. The illustrations, by the clever young actor who is "Bernard Gould" on the stage and "J. Bernard Partridge" in black and white, are delightful, especially the "Stage Adventuress" and the "Stage Detective."

The third volume of M. Legouvé's 'Comédies et Drames' (Paris: Ollendorff; New York: F. W. Christern) contains "Bataille de Dames," "Une Séparation," "Médée," and "Miss Suzanne." The preface to "Médée," oddly enough, gives no particulars of the author's controversy with Rachel and the Comédie-Française, or of the play's acceptance by Ristori; it was not to be expected that it should refer to the marvellous burlesque of Ristori by F. Robson, or to the English version by Mr. Wills acted by Miss Kate Bateman. The preface to the famous comedy "Bataille de Dames," probably the most frequently acted of M. Legouvé's plays, tells the story of its composition, and shows that Scribe's share in it was less than he usually had in the plays he helped to write.

A new edition of Charles Edmonds's 'Poetry of the *Anti-Jacobin*,' with copious fresh annotations, guesses at authorship, selections from the *Anti-Jacobin Review and Magazine* (the successor of the *Anti-Jacobin*), and other matter, has just been issued by G. P. Putnam's Sons. The illustrations by Gillray are retained, and the general appearance of the work is attractive, in spite of much necessary fine print in the editorial department. The two original indexes to the earlier and the later periodical are reproduced for the sake of showing their essential unity of spirit, and will aid any one to explore further the field in which Canning and his confrères plied their slashing trade.

The vague prospectus of the *Republic Magazine*, begun to be published in April in this city, leaves us in doubt as to the motives of its founders. So far as it fosters the Grand Army of the Republic, or perpetuates the memories of the late war for the sake of political capital, we cannot think it a desirable addition to existing periodicals. Gen. Alger's portrait serves as frontispiece, and a sketch of his life accompanies it.

A biological journal, *Zoe*, was started in March by the Zoe Publishing Co., San Francisco, as a medium for amateurs and working naturalists on the Pacific Coast. Its existence for a year has been guaranteed. The first number is presentable and readable. We may mention the paper on the behavior of birds and other animals during a total eclipse, and that on naturalized plants, in which we read: "It is worth noting that it is to the plant-eradicating sheep, which has wrought such destruction to our native flora, that California probably owes the introduction of its most valuable and abundant forage crops, namely, alfileria, bur-clover, and wild oats, and that all are of Mediterranean origin."

The Duke of Argyll's address before the Scottish Geographical Society on the "Border-Lands between Geology and Geography" is published in the April number of that society's magazine. It treats of the old theory of glacial action in moulding the surface of northern Europe as illustrated by the present condition of Greenland. The Duke argues that the sluggish movement of Greenland's great ice-cap, estimated to be at least 2,000 feet thick and sliding down a slope 15,000 feet high and some 400 miles long in its widest part, is inconsistent with the theory. Were it true, the ice would be thrust out into the sea with irresistible force, ploughing up its depths and filling up its bays and narrow channels. As a matter of fact it does not everywhere reach the shore, the largest mass which succeeds being the Humboldt Glacier, with a frontage of 50 or 60 miles out of a total coast-line of over 3,000. The Duke accordingly sides with those who imagine the submergence of our northern hemisphere during the glacial period, the scratches observed being made by small local glaciers and floating ice. His address is followed by a singularly clear and interesting account of Southern California by Prof. W. G. Blaikie of Edinburgh, with some sound advice for intending immigrants; and a description of the Kanikaras, or Jungle Kings, a native race of Travancore in Southern India.

The principal article in the April Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is Sir William MacGregor's report of his successful ascent of the Owen Stanley Range in New Guinea. Advantage was taken of a newly discovered river to penetrate some distance into the interior by boat, the rest of the journey being through a trackless jungle and over a succession of mountain ranges, through a country almost devoid of inhabitants. The highest point, near which the expedition camped for two days, was found to be 13,121 feet high, and was apparently partly clothed with grass, in which were daisies, buttercups, forget-me-nots, heather, etc. There were very few birds, the most noteworthy being a lark, and no animals, so far as appears from the report. It was noticeable that none of the natives accompanying the expedition expressed any religious scruples

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about the ascent of the highest peak. An admirable map, twenty-three statute miles to an inch, of the country between the Rovuma and Zambesi Rivers is especially interesting, as showing very clearly a part of the territory in dispute between Portugal and Great Britain.

The December number of the *American Journal of Archæology* (Boston: Ginn & Co.) concludes vol. v. The leading papers all relate to Grecian topics, and all but one proceed from the American School at Athens, and have reference to excavations and discoveries. In the always full department of news, notice is taken of Capt. Bötticher's theory that Schliemann's Troy was only a necropolis for incineration, and of Dr. Schliemann's invitation to this sceptic to visit Hissarlik in company with Dr. Dörpfeld, etc. On the 30th of March, in fact, a conference held on the spot declared that there were no traces of incineration of human bodies, and that the plans given in the 'Troja' and 'Ilios' are quite accurate and conformable to the existing state of the uncovered ruins. The signers of this report were the French delegate (an engineer), C. Babin, Frank Calvert, United States Consular Agent, Dr. F. von Duhn of Heidelberg, Dr. Grempler of Breslau, O. Hamdy, Director General of the Imperial Museum at Constantinople, Dr. Carl Humann, Director of the Royal Prussian Museum, Dr. R. Virchow, and Dr. Charles Waldstein. The plates in this number of the *Journal* are, as usual, well executed and interesting.

The London *Bookseller* for April 5 reports the proceedings at the trade dinner of the craft on March 8, and supplies a noteworthy portrait-gallery of the British publishers and authors associated on that occasion.

A premature discussion has been tolerated in the columns of the London *Times* over the coining of a verb to denote electric progression. Several correspondents suggest *trize* (sb. *trice*, as trice-boat), *trise*, *trice*, or *triss;* one proposes *trek*, another *mote*, another *lect*, another *circuit*, another *tim* or *loc* (from Timæus of Locri), etc. Most sensible, to our thinking, is he who thinks *go* sufficient for the present. In this country and State we observe a journalistic uneasiness caused by the substitution of electricity for the rope in putting an end to criminals; and as if *execution* did not cover all possible modes, *electrocution* is invented without a blush.

On March 15 the *Revista de España* resumed publication after suspension for about a year. Protracted litigation over the ownership of the magazine was the cause of the trouble, but Antonio Leiva has now been legally reinstated in his rights as proprietor, and proposes to add new years to the splendid history of the *Revista*. He will undoubtedly find a formidable competitor for public favor in the new *España Moderna*, now entering upon its second year with brilliant success.

Numbers 36 and 37 of the Harvard University Library's Bibliographical Contributions consist respectively of a Bibliography of William Hogarth, by Frank Weitenkampf of the Astor Library, and a catalogue of the Dante collections in the Harvard College and Boston Public Libraries, by William Coolidge Lane. Mr. Lane's achievement deserves very high praise, and the catalogue will be invaluable to Dante students, for, though at a distance, they can, under proper restrictions, avail themselves of the collection at Harvard, for which Mr. Lane bespeaks the gifts of its friends. We must not omit mention of the elaborate "Index of Subjects and of Passages in the Divina Commedia," which concludes the catalogue; or of the note on the Dante portraits in the collection.

Mr. James Lyman Whitney of the Boston Public Library has just completed a 'Catalogue of the Bibliographies of Special Subjects' in that institution, filling seventy-one pages in double columns. It is needless to remark on the utility of this work wherever there is a tolerably well-equipped library within reach. The title-words in this catalogue are, we think, open to criticism on the score of the indistinct type selected for them.

"A Review of the Family Delphinidæ," by Prof F. W. True, in Bulletin 36 of the United States National Museum, puts together in convenient shape the scattered knowledge of the porpoises and some of their allies. The preparation of the work necessitated visits to the principal European museums. Its extent is shown by the fact that the author's descriptions and notes relate to sixty-two species, of nineteen genera. There are 191 pages of text and 47 plates of illustrations.

Conchologists and students of mollusks in general will welcome Bulletin 37 of the United States National Museum, containing Mr. W. H. Dall's 'Preliminary Catalogue of the Shell-bearing Mollusks and Brachiopods of the Southeastern Coast of the United States.' The list includes more than 1,100 names, 221 pages, with localities, depths, ranges, etc. Of the seventy-four plates, illustrating some hundreds of the species, forty are republished from papers of the author in bulletins of the Museum of Comparative Zoölogy, and the rest from others in publications of the United States Fish Commission and elsewhere.

The report of the Connecticut Bureau of Labor Statistics for 1889 is mainly devoted to the fish and oyster industry. An interesting account is given of the development of the oyster farms under the waters of Long Island Sound, and elaborate maps, based upon those of the Coast Survey, are furnished showing the limits of the oyster grounds of the State. This singular industry has been developed through the conflicts of interest of individuals, towns, large capitalists, corporations, and even States, and its history is an epitome of the growth of the institution of property in land. Scientific research has done much for it, but the chief causes of loss (storms and starfish) have not been brought under control. It appears that the great oyster industry of Baltimore is the result of Connecticut sagacity. Many interesting bits of information are to be found in the reports from the fishermen of the various towns. The total capital employed is $3,322,000, value of product $1,232,000, expenses $556,000, losses $543,000 (starfish cause $498,000 loss), and number of employees 1,024. The small profit shown by these figures casts doubt upon their accuracy, and the losses are probably to some extent speculative. The report also contains an abstract of the proceedings of the convention of chiefs of bureaus of labor statistics held last June at Hartford.

The opening of the Johns Hopkins University Medical School is at best but a question of a few years, when temporary embarrassment has been overcome. To hasten the much desired event, however (for the Hospital is already open and organized), it is proposed to raise the sum of at least $100,000 to be offered to the Trustees "on condition that women whose previous training has been equivalent to that of the preliminary medical course of the University, be admitted to the School . . . on the same terms as men." This offer is more likely to be accepted now than it would be if the School were once opened to men only.

Mr. F. Gutekunst, Philadelphia, has surpassed himself in the latest issue of his American portrait gallery, an imperial photograph of Walt Whitman. The pose of the old poet, his free costume, wonderfully set off by Tudor collar and cuffs, and his noble expression, leave nothing to be desired on the part of his admirers, to the English portion of whom particularly we commend this panel-picture as an ornament after their own hearts.

—*Harper's* for May opens with an appreciative notice of the latest group of French artists, each being treated individually, and sufficient illustration is given to suggest the qualities of their work so carefully discriminated by Mr. Child. The avoidance of any general discussion of their practice of the art is a happy instance of discretion on the part of the critic; it is enough for the present that he presents their phases, indicates their choices in subject and sentiment, and leaves time for judgment upon their work to ripen. Literature receives attention in two noticeable papers, one upon the Caroline lyrists, adorned with excellent and attractive portraits, and the other upon wit and humor. The author of this last paper makes a most elaborate analysis, partly in a psychological, partly in a literary vein, and reviews the opinions of those who have tried from the day of Plato to determine the nature and origin of the delight of the mind in the ludicrous. He meets with no success in attempting to analyze it from the Darwinian point of view, and will not admit that malignity is at all adequate to explain either its composition or its growth. At the end he can only suggest that the faculty of humor in primitive tribes was, like the electrical organ in the tail of the skate, a prophecy of utilities to come; and such a conclusion reads like a malicious parody of the true faith of Darwinians, though apparently not so intended. The paper is a very thoughtful and well-informed examination of this much-disputed matter. The account of the old taverns of this city revives a subject of which the general or the learned reader seems never to weary, and the accompanying cuts of Manhattan life furnish the proper half-sportive accompaniment. Mr. Chittenden records an incident of the history of the Treasury in which a physically costly service was done in the line of official duty under striking circumstances, and in which virtue seems to have been its own reward. Mr. Curtis in the Easy Chair pays a friendly tribute to the qualities of the late George P. Bradford of Cambridge.

—The *Century* is an eminently entertaining number, well varied in matter and not laboriously serious in its most solid portions. Some new portraits of Washington represent him in somewhat hard and dry lines and with less distinction and expression in the features, but they are interesting to the eye. The text contains many little details, mostly of a domestic kind. A paper upon "Chickens for Use and Beauty" gives occasion for several admirable illustrations, full of spirit and refinement in rendering—really a remarkable series. The French salon is a third topic, so attractive and fresh in itself that it never fails to entertain us with its bevy of beauty and fame, its wit and scandal and intrigue; and under the present writer's hand it loses nothing. Mr. Kennan describes the working of the press-censorship in Russia, and tells a number of illustrative incidents to show the meddlesomeness and inefficiency of the system. A page or two of the *Century* "blacked out" by the Russian officials is the one expressive illustration of his article. He says that some pages of the 'Life of Lincoln' were also erased in the same way. Major Powell writes of the institutions which he thinks should be established in the arid region of the

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country in order to meet the peculiar agrarian conditions of a vast irrigated district with the modifications of property-right and associated control under these new circumstances, and it is a pleasure to observe in such an article a disposition to reduce Government action within the narrowest limits and to leave to local control the actual management of affairs. A careful comparison of the valor and skill of the two armies in the civil war brings forward a subject upon which it is not desirable to reach any decision. A number of short papers, together with fiction, interleave these leading contributions.

— *Scribner's* contains two articles of leading interest. The first is upon Barbizon and the life of Millet and other artists there, abundantly illustrated and pleasantly narrated. The second is Mr. Eugene Schuyler's paper upon Mme. de Staël in Italy, in which he has gathered much curious matter from the letters and memoirs of the time, and set the life of the author of 'Corinne' and her ways of thought, sentiment, and action among the Italians very vividly before the reader. The contribution belongs with the other sketches of foreigners in Italy which the author has written of late, full of close information and side-lights; but in the present instance the treatment is more elaborate, and the subject has a certain exceptional brilliancy of its own. The right of the citizen to the use of the streets is treated of briefly and sufficiently, and incidentally illustrates the complication and complexity of our modern city life, especially in those parts of the paper which look to the street not as a superficial roadway of locomotion, but as a thing in the air and under ground, the home of rails and wires, in which respects this city shows the most advanced development of the old highway. The cut showing the actual occupancy of the underground space by the sewers, pipes, subways, etc., is remarkable and suggestive. Another paper of great value for its illustrative examples, is a review, by Mr. W. A. Linn, of some actual results of coöperative building, with cuts of houses and prices, taken from a wide extent of territory. The Japanese theatre is the last topic that calls for any special mention, and it is treated with considerable fulness and with regard to many different points of interest.

—The American Metrological Society, organized in 1873 to promote measures looking towards the improvement of the systems of weights, measures, and moneys at present existing among men, has just held a special meeting in Washington. It was the first time the Society had met in the capital, and one of the objects in convening there was to bring influence to bear upon Congress. Only one paper was read, that by Mr. Horton on "Instruments of Valuation." In the discussion of this topic the science of metrology played an unimportant part, since the writer had a financial or economic theme in view. The activity of the session was manifested in three resolutions. The first was to request the Secretary of the Treasury to ask Congress to include the equivalent in metres or kilograms in all designations of measure or mass in subsequent legislation on all questions of customs. That is, when the duty is fixed as so much per pound, to state, parenthetically so to speak, the amount per kilo; or, when given as so much per yard, to add "or so much per metre," thus relieving custom-house officials of the trouble of conversion when the invoice specifies the quantity in the metric system. The second resolution provided for the appointment of a committee to suggest to the Postmaster-General the desirability of specifying in the postal regulations the weight of single foreign postage in the metric system. At present there is nearly a gramme difference between the actual equivalent and what is given in the postal regulations as the equivalent—a fact which causes embarrassment when mail is delivered with postage due, or held for lack of full postage prepaid. The third resolution, advocated by Prof. Mendenhall, was in the shape of an expressed opinion that, inasmuch as the electrical units have received the names of distinguished specialists from all parts of the world, excepting America, one or two of the units yet to be designated should have the name Franklin, Henry, or both. The matter is likely to be brought definitely before the International Electrical Congress during the session to be held in this country in 1892. The members of the Society had an opportunity to inspect the standards of measure and mass in the possession of the Bureau of Weights and Measures. The chief interest, of course, centred around the metre and kilo prototypes recently received from the International Commission and opened a few weeks ago by President Harrison.

—Master Francis Villon, of joyous memory, was the subject of an extremely interesting communication to the French Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres at its sitting of April 4. M. Marcel Schwob, who has been following up traces of Villon in the old court records, read a number of documents taken from the archives of the Department of the Côte d'Or, which throw much light on the ballads in slang which have gone by the name of Villon's "Jargon." It is known that these were written between the years 1456 and 1461. There are plain allusions in ballads iii. and iv. to a gang of loose fellows of the baser sort who were known as the Coquillards, or the "Compagnons de la Coquille." Several of them were hung at Dijon on December 18, 1455. Ballad ii., "Coquillars narvans à Ruel," is directly addressed to them, and makes mention of the punishment of two of Villon's friends, Régnier de Montigny and Colin de Cayeux (Colin l'Escalier), both of whom were executed after 1460. A list of some seventy-five words of the *argot* of the Coquillards was shown by M. Schwob, in which twenty-four of the slang words used by Villon in the "Jargon" appear. It seems certain that Villon was on terms of close intimacy with the gang, even if he were not regularly affiliated to it. Villon was himself in prison in 1461, and his own neck (as he says, or some one in his name says) ran some risk of receiving a lesson at that time. He himself attributes his imprisonment to his *folle plaisance*, but he doubtless had very liberal notions as to what that phrase might be held to cover. M. Schwob ended his communication by some remarks on the etymology of the *argot*, which he traces in many instances to the Greek.

— The admirers of Henrik Ibsen will be glad to know that another of his social dramas ("De Unges Forbund") can now be had in a translation by Mr. William Archer. This play, which Mr. Archer entitles "The League of Youth," while not to be ranked with Ibsen's best dramas, will be welcome as the first example obtainable in English of his lighter vein. In the same volume Mr. Archer has included his translation of "Samfundets Stötter" ("The Pillars of Society"), which was published two years ago in the "Camelot Series," but which he says he has thoroughly revised, and also a translation of "Et Dukkehjem," which was only issued before in a limited, illustrated edition. The book is published as volume one of "Ibsen's Prose Dramas," and all the author's prose works are promised to be included in this series, in a chronological arrangement—that is to say, not only the eight modern social dramas, but the previous six historical plays. The poetical works, however, are to be omitted, including 'Brand' and 'Peer Gynt,' which even Mr. Archer, apparently, does not feel courageous enough to attempt to turn into English.

—Mr. Archer's "Biographical Introduction" is a slight performance, and contains nothing not already familiar to American readers. He acknowledges his indebtedness to Mr. Jæger's biography of Ibsen, but says he owes other details to the courtesy of the poet himself. We fail to detect anything of interest, however, which could not be found in Mr. Jæger's book. It is not quite accurate, by the way, to refer to the short-lived satirical sheet which Ibsen and his friends, Botten-Hansen and Vinje, issued in Christiania in 1851, as being entitled *Manden* (The Man). This interesting bibliographical rarity was issued without any title, and the above peculiar appellation was due to the clever vignette illustrations which showed "the man" (the news-seeking editor) in various attitudes in the market-place of Norway's capital, or as an observant spectator and listener in the gallery of the Parliament House. But near the close of its existence the paper was given a title, and then it was called *Andhrimer*, that being the name of the cook in Valhall, the home of the gods in Scandinavian mythology. The second volume of the series, promised for April 25, will contain, besides "Ghosts," two new translations, "En Folkefiende" ("An Enemy of the People") and "Vildanden" ("The Wild Duck"). The volumes are neatly printed and bound, and the issue for this country bears the imprint of Scribner & Welford. In view of the fact that a suspicion of piracy attaches to all previous American reprints of Ibsen's works, a more definite statement of the author's sanction of this edition than the mere words "Authorized translation" upon the title-page would have been welcome.

THE HISTORY OF ENGLISH METRES.

Englische Metrik in historischer und systematischer Entwickelung dargestellt von J. Schipper. Zweiter Theil: neuenglische Metrik; erste Hälfte: Verslehre. Bonn: Strauss. Pp. xxvi., 464.

It is nearly eight years since we had the pleasure of reviewing the first volume of Schipper's monumental work. That volume covered the entire period from Anglo-Saxon times, through the Anglo-Norman reigns, Chaucer and his "school," down to the reign of Henry VIII. The present volume is wholly concerned with the treatment of the single line. For the needs of the ordinary reader, this may be thought excessive; but for the genuine student assuredly it is not. The varieties of single line in English metre are much more numerous than the uninitiated are apt to suspect, and the adjustment of the metrical units, the so-called feet, comprising each variety of line, is extremely diversified. A single illustration will make this clear. It is simple enough to define blank verse as five-foot iambic pentameter without rhyme; but puzzling questions spring up the moment we undertake to discuss the cæsural pause, its position in the line, its capacity for suppressing a syllable or introducing an extra syllable, the difference between end-stopped and run-on lines, inverted accentuation, lines apparently six feet in length, but in

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reality pentameter, and the like. Schipper has allotted 120 pages in all to his discussion of blank verse. There are fourteen pages of general remarks, nearly twenty upon the blank verse of Shakspere's predecessors, about thirty upon Shakspere, upwards of twenty upon the later dramatists, nine upon Milton, nine upon the Restoration and eighteenth century, about twenty upon the nineteenth century. Whoever works through this seemingly long chapter with a view to mastering all the curious ups and downs of our English verse by eminence, from Surrey's 'Æneid' and the old play of "Gorboduc" to Tennyson's "Queen Mary," will be deeply grateful to the man who is teaching him, and will never dream of taxing him with prolixity.

Our strictures upon Schipper's treatment are in part general, in part are corrections of special points too important to be passed over as mere slips. Among the errors of a general nature, we note the author's disposition to regard his own statement of Anglo-Saxon verse (in vol. i.) as conclusive. This statement might have passed eight years ago, but should now be readjusted to the new method established by Sievers. According to Sievers, we have no right to speak of *Senkung in der germanischen Poesie* as Schipper does at pp. 3 and 42; nor is it prudent to ascribe the prevalence of iambic over trochaic movement in modern verse (see p. 13) to a like phenomenon in early verse—at least if under early verse we include Anglo-Saxon, for in Sievers's tabulation the trochaic type of foot exceeds the iambic. Perhaps Schipper draws the line sharply between Anglo-Saxon and early English; if so, his language should be more precise.

Another general fault in our author's method is the assumption—sometimes expressed, more frequently implied—of a correct standard line, deviations from which are to be condemned as errors, or at best tolerated as blemishes. Now, whatever may be the theory of metres in the classic tongues, or in modern French and German, we reject every assumption of a correct standard line for English. Schipper has very likely been misled herein by the regularity and smoothness of the great German poets, notably Goethe. But all great English poets, whether or not adopting in their subject-matter the motto of Tasso's Princess, "Erlaubt ist, was sich schickt," have in their management of verse-form unquestionably realized Tasso's own speech: "Erlaubt ist, was gefällt." From Marlowe and Shakspere to Tennyson, every great poet has been master of his metre, not its bondsman. Thus, what right has Schipper to assert, p. 16, that the coincidence of word and foot (diæresis) always produces a disagreeable, chopping effect (*stets eine unangenehme hackende Wirkung*), thereby pronouncing a sweeping condemnation upon Milton's

"Too well I see and rue the dire event"?

Does the German critic really believe that his ear is better than Milton's for the effect intended by just such a line? Does he believe that Tennyson did not know what he was about when he wrote:

"Would turn and glare at me and point and jeer"?

In like manner, pp. 33 and 34 recklessly invert the relative position of two features in our verse which we supposed beyond the reach of misunderstanding, viz.: hovering accent and the suppression of the *Auftakt* (anacrusis). As to the latter, our best poets since the days of Chaucer have tacitly shunned it in the five-foot iambic; and even for Chaucer himself it has cost Prof. Skeat a hard and prolonged struggle to establish the validity of such passages as—

"Of this flóur when thát it shúld enclóse"

or—

"Y'permístra, yóngest of hem álle."

whereas hovering accent is among the veriest commonplaces of our poets and poetasters. Yet Schipper in all seriousness declares, p. 33, the suppression of the anacrusis to be the only one of these two features susceptible of artistic treatment! And at p. 38 the hovering accent is denounced as "eine unter allen Umständen tadelnswerthe metrische Licenz," involving "eine Beeinträchtigung der natürlichen oder logischen Wortbetonung zu Gunsten des Versrhythmus," and cultivated chiefly by poets "die nur über einen verhaltnissmässig geringen Grad technischer Geschicklichkeit verfügen!" What a pity that all our poets should be such botchers—that Tennyson, for instance, could dare to perpetrate the verse—

"For testimony; and crying with full voice"—

and force us to suspend *our* voice between "with" and "full." But we comfort ourselves with the reflection that perhaps the Laureate's verse rests upon other principles than those of metrical philosophy.

Not quite so glaring, yet no less untenable, are Schipper's views upon *enjambement* and light-weak endings, pp. 59-65. Whether or not the *enjambement* in a given passage be good or bad, is a question not to be settled according to abstract criteria, but solely and simply by English taste and English ear. To designate, p. 62, the immortal opening of 'Paradise Lost,' that "God-gifted organ voice of England," as "not bad" (*nicht übeltönend*) is altogether too condescending. But to designate, p. 65, Shakspere's light-weak endings as "usually bad" (*in der Regel misstönend*) is measurement by rule-of-thumb with a vengeance.

The title given by our author to his chapter iii., viz., *Silbenmessung*, is not, in our judgment, a very happy one. What Schipper means by it is the suppression or utterance of a vowel in unaccented terminations, such as *-ed*, *-est*, *-iage*, etc. The subject is more important for Elizabethan than for Victorian poetry. In the main the treatment here given will be found highly instructive, but we must take exception to some points. Thus we fail to see the practical advantages of distinguishing syncope, synicese, *Verschleifung*, *doppelte Senkung* (see pp. 95, 100, 101, 106, 110, etc.). To our way of thinking, it would be much simpler to say that a (written or printed) vowel is either suppressed (syncopated) in actual pronunciation, or is sounded; *e. g.*, *pátience* (usually spoken, *páshens*, but in Elizabethan English spoken, *pa-shi-ens*). In the latter case the word may bear two accents, as in *pá-shi-éns*, or it may form a foot with a superfluous syllable, as: wárrior chief. But in any case the reader should have no difficulty in reading correctly without the aid of cumbersome terminology.

In like manner, the technical term *Zerdehnung* used by Schipper (and others) does not commend itself to us (pp. 46, 115). Schipper's language, in fact, seems to imply that he looks upon the phenomenon itself as metrical, or at least as evolved through the exigencies of metre. If so, this is an error. To begin with, the pronunciation of *our*, *fire*, *year*, *humbly*, *ordnance*, etc., with a distinct *e* sound before the *r*, *l*, *n*, is not confined to poetry. We find it equally in the prose of most Indo-European languages; in Celtic, indeed, it becomes almost a grammatical function. In the next place, it is not correct to designate the process as a "lengthening"—it is rather the evolution of a vowel from a consonant. In philological treatises it is called svarabhakti, or epenthesis, although we observe that Brugmann gives a slightly different meaning to epenthesis. At any rate, Schipper should have treated the phenomenon more in accordance with general philology. And in the last place, we do not admit that such words as remembrance, wondrous, pilgrim, when pronounced rememberance, wonderous, pilegrim (pp. 117, 118), are genuine instances of epenthesis. On the contrary, the fuller forms are older and historically justifiable (for pilegrim, compare even the modern French *pèlerin* and the Latin *peregrinus*); whereas the shorter ones are contractions. With regard to the dissyllabic sound of *door* in Shakspere, "And with my sword I'll keep this do-or safe," *Tit. Andr.* i, l. 288 (if the line is really Shakspere's), a brilliant modern instance occurs to us. Wordsworth, in his poem "To the Small Celandine," wrote:

"That they all are wanton wooers;
But the thrifty cottager,
Who stirs but little out of doors," etc.

The rhyme wooers: doors we submit as a neat crux to the ultra-Wordsworthians. That door is spoken dūr in North England may be safely assumed. But is dū-er also Northern, or is it a Wordsworthism?

Chapter iv., on Word-Accent, rests on solid ground, and offers many valuable suggestions upon the difference between Elizabethan and Victorian speech. Yet, in one respect, the chapter is seriously defective. The Elizabethan poet by eminence, outside of the drama, is Spenser. Yet Schipper nowhere gives evidence of having made that minute study of the poet which is his due. Our readers may compare what is said of the pronunciation of diet, p. 129, with—

"And of her owne foule entrayles makes her meat;
Meat fit for such a mouster's monsterous dyeat."
(*F. Q. v. 12, xxxi.*)

The rhyme evidently requires a pronunciation like that of the modern French *diète*. As for cóntrary, contrárу, p. 155, we need only cite:

"That sayd, her rownd about she from her turnd,
She turned her contrary to the sunne;
Thrise she her turned contrary, and returnd
All contrary; for she the right did shunne."
(*F. Q. iii. 2, vi.*)

and

"From one to other so quite contrary"
(*iv. 6, xxxii.*),

where the rhyme with "suddenly" requires us to speak "cóntrary."

Schipper's treatment of the cæsura is both full and satisfactory, in its general principles, at least, although we might differ with him as to an occasional scansion. Such terms, however, as lyric and epic cæsura (p. 25 and throughout the volume) are objectionable. Lyric and epic, if they mean anything, designate different kinds of poetry. To call a certain variety of cæsural pause epic, almost of necessity intimates that it is characteristic of epic poetry; yet Schipper means nothing of the sort. We venture to suggest trochaic and dactylic as safer terms; and the blunt cæsura may be called the iambic. The value of Schipper's treatment of blank verse, in particular, is diminished not a little by the tacit assumption that there must be a cæsura in every line. We fail to see the validity of the assumption. It seems to us an application of the systems of Greco-Latin hexameter and French Alexandrine to a poetry that defies rigorous system. There is not a master of English blank verse that scruples to compose without cæsural pause whenever he feels that the situation justifies or requires continuous utterance. To a true poet, language and metre are only means to an end; he aims at varying effects, and he makes his line run or halt, flow equably or grate upon the ear, merely because he wishes to, and with the clearest conscious-

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ness of what he is doing. Thus, p. 174, Chapman's lines made up of monosyllables are spoken of disparagingly. By what right? Regel, to whose essay on Chapman Schipper is indebted for most of his data, is careful to avoid committing himself on the point. And if Chapman is to blame for monosyllabic lines, what becomes of Shakspere's

"Earth gapes, hell burns, fiends roar, saints pray."
(*Rich. III.*, *iv.*, *4*, *75*.)

or Tennyson's

"Let the great angel of the Church come with him,
Stand on the deck and spread his wings for sail!
God lay the waves and strew the storms at sea."
(*Queen Mary*, *i.*, *5*.)

We have not space to even touch upon the various forms of verse as developed by our author; the septenarius, the Alexandrine, the four-foot line, the four-beat line (the most original section and perhaps the most deserving of careful heed in the entire volume), the heroic couplet, blank verse, trochaic verse, modern imitations of Greco-Roman metres, etc. We merely note, in passing, that Schipper omits from his treatment of the Alexandrine all mention of Biron's ecstatic sonnet, "Love's Labor's Lost," iv.,2, 109-122; also (from his remarks on the septenarius) the immortal effusion of good Master Holofernes to the Sorel, in the same scene. Upon the whole we suspect that "Love's Labor's Lost" has been rather persistently avoided by metrical investigators, although it is singularly rich in "finds." But we hope that Mr. Sweet's "inevitable German" will not be long in making his advent with an exhaustive line analysis. For a Victorian revival of the Alexandrine on a grand scale our author should have noted, p. 193, Browning's "Fifine."

Concerning modern attempts to reproduce the metre of 'Beowulf' and other poems in Anglo-Saxon, noted pp. 234, 235, we content ourselves with asserting that not one of the translators there mentioned has reproduced the movement of his original, for the all-sufficient reason that not one has made his translation in accordance with the principles demonstrated by Sievers. Browning's "Flight of the Duchess," put by our author (p. 251) in his chapter on the four-foot iambic, belongs rather to p. 232, in the chapter on four-beat verse. So also the quotation from Rochester (p. 211). Why Schipper (p. 257) should see fit to echo Guest's absurd attempt to connect Chaucer's 'Tale of Melibeus' somehow with the beginnings of blank verse, is to us a profound mystery. Yet Guest's absurdity has found its match in our own day. Goodlet, in an article on "Shakspere's Debt to John Lilly" (*Engl. Studien*, v., 359), gravely ventures to assert of Lyly's prose, "It may have acted on Shakspere by directing his attention to poetical form"! What our author means (p. 298) by an evident tendency in Shakspere's later dramas to revert to a certain regularity, we fail to understand. If the dramatist ever penned anything more free, more "irregular" in metre, syntax, word-usage, than the "Winter's Tale," it has escaped our notice. The selection from the "Tempest" given p. 315 we can scarcely accept as "typical" of Shakspere's very latest manner. Schipper's dry enumeration of eighteenth-century writers of blank verse (p. 355) has its value. If it does nothing more, it will at least rectify Gosse's extraordinary blunders.

The treatment of blank verse of the nineteenth century is usually fair-minded, but scarcely full enough for such poets as Wordsworth, Tennyson, and Browning. The estimate put upon Byron (p. 372) is unworthy of the book; Schipper, like Swinburne, merely echoes the cheap and puerile jibes of Campbell. Byron is the only modern English poet that knows how to wield the free run-on blank verse of the later Elizabethan and early Stuart drama. But it seems that what was good in the "Winter's Tale" is not good in "Cain."

Schipper's treatment of the various forms of trochaic verse is excellent. The author is here more original, less hampered by the dicta and statistics of his predecessors. But we cannot enter upon the subject, nor upon that of imitations of classic metres.

There are some single points that call for corrections. Twice (pp. 98, 371) "soldiers" is made out to be trisyllabic in Coleridge's translation of "Piccolomini." Here Schipper's text has misled him. The line is not as quoted—

"The very churches are full of soldiers"—

but

"The very churches are *all* full of soldiers."

Similarly, p. 222, the line from Byron's "Beppo"—

"I don't know how they can get over it"—

should read—

"I don't know how they *ever* can get over it."

At p. 444, in enumerating the English renderings of 'Hermann und Dorothea,' Schipper has overlooked the excellent one by Miss Frothingham. Some of the remarks upon single words are quite at fault. Thus, "certes" is classified (p. 92) as an Old-English genitive in -es; it is not, but an Old-French word throughout. The remarks upon the termination -ious (p. 99) are in very questionable shape; the entire paragraph should be rewritten. How Schipper happens to put the termination -uence in the same category with -ience (p. 97), and thereby declare it to be usually monosyllabic, is a fresh puzzle. But for the citation of "influence" from "Tintern Abbey," we might charitably conjecture the -uence part of the paragraph-heading to be a printer's blunder.

Our criticism of Schipper has been almost exclusively in the nature of fault-finding; yet, viewing the book as a whole, we do not hesitate to concede to it an unstinted measure of praise. It is well proportioned and inspired throughout by self-denying research. The author has set himself a lofty ideal and striven manfully to attain it. Personally we are indebted to him for an insight into the structure of our verse, for a broad bird's-eye view of it in all its bearings, such as we should never have enjoyed without his aid. That any one should undertake to systematize the English verse line, with all its quirks and quibbles for three centuries and a half, is remarkable. That the work should be done by a German is almost incredible. It is easy for the native to hear where the German ear has failed to catch the beat of the English pulse; but to make too much of this superiority would be childish. After all, method is method. There is not one of us who would not profit immensely by three months' or six months' diligent study of Schipper's method. And, once familiar with it, every one will gladly revert to it on all occasions as the patientest and honestest of guides.

WEISMANN ON HEREDITY.

Essays upon Heredity and Kindred Biological Problems. By Dr. August Weismann. Authorized Translation, by Selmar Schönland and A. E. Shipley. Edited by E. B. Poulton. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1889. 8vo, pp. 455.

THE fourth volume of the "Translations of Foreign Biological Memoirs" contains eight of Dr. Weismann's papers, brought together from various sources of original publication, dating from 1881 to 1888. On account of the high rank of the author as a biologist, these writings attract much attention, especially among the followers of Darwin. A firm belief in Darwinism is evident from the start; knowing this, it is possible in some measure to anticipate the conclusions reached in these essays. Rate of growth, ultimate size, rapidity of reproduction, parthenogenesis, difference of sex, instinct, heredity, length of life, and death, all are said to be useful to the organism and consequently to have been the effects of natural selection. Taken in order of sequence, the chapters lead up to the later and more mature opinions, which are shown by the series to have suffered some modification. We can touch upon but a few of the prominent points.

Spontaneous generation, though not yet demonstrated, is to this author a logical necessity. The protozoa, unicellular, monoplastid, divide into others similar to the parent, and, all the cells being reproductive, are practically immortal. In multicellular metazoa, division of labor obtains: some of the cells remain wholly reproductive, others become body cells, which, incapable of reproducing themselves indefinitely, wearing out, become useless and detrimental; hence the necessity of death and the birth of a new body to bear the generative cells and prolong the life of the species. Duration of life is made to depend upon adaptation to external conditions and to be governed by the needs of the species; the advantage of the species alone, not that of the individual, being of importance. It may be said, in passing, that here as elsewhere, it is the temporary advantage, that of the present, that is important, regardless of ultimate influence on the existence of the species.

The first essay, "Duration of Life," is continued and amplified in the third, "Life and Death." As taught here, death is an adaptation brought about by natural selection; it is expedient because individuals that have served their purpose, reproduction, become useless and harmful in that they take the place of useful. The mortality of the body cells arose with their differentiation from originally homogeneous cells of polyplastids into dissimilar cells in heteroplastids.

The second essay deals with the transference of hereditary tendencies from one generation to another. This is accomplished by means of the "substance of the germ cells" (in a later writing by the contents of the nuclei), the germ plasm. On the supposed continuity and unchanged nature of this substance, Weismann builds his theory of heredity. One thing adduced in support is the fact that in certain insects the formation of the embryo begins by setting apart a few small cells for the reproductive organs. A portion of the germ plasm transmitted to the first generation remains unchanged and is passed on to the second, and so on, thus insuring permanence in the type and perpetuating characters of parents and previous ancestors. Abnormalities, mutilations, etc., are declared non-transmissible. It is conceded, more or less directly, that the direct influence of circumstances (climate, for instance) may work changes in the germ, and in this manner originate predispositions and bring about the possibility of accumulations of effects which would depend not wholly on the influence upon an individual during its life, but on the germ during generations. In extra use of an organ the amount of power depends on the predisposition; and natural selection, while apparently deciding between stronger and weaker individuals, is said to be really deciding between stronger and weaker germs. After all, Weismann does not make it clear that the predisposition itself is not an acquired character, a consequence of the action of ex-

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ternal causes. His theory carries the matter further back, and his arguments make apparent a need of repairs in the foundation on which the general idea of "the survival of the fittest in the struggle for life" has been built.

Panmixia is defined as the suspension of the operation of natural selection, a condition which allows all the individuals to reproduce and stamp their characters upon the species—not only those which are fittest in all respects or in some special organs. We do not see that it is established that selection ever really ceases, or that Panmixia is not ceaseless, whatever the effect of selection.

The fourth of the essays is an amplification of the second in most of its features. The fundamental idea is, that heredity is brought about by transmission from one generation to another of a substance with a definite chemical and, above all, molecular constitution, slight changes in which induce divergencies in the descendants. These changes control the predisposition, without the preëxistence of which, as our author says, nothing can arise in an organism. The nuclear substance is the sole bearer of hereditary tendencies; and it must contain not only those of the immediate parents, but also those of an indefinite number of ancestors. A true continuity is apparently shown in some flies; in plants, however, there are propagations by shoots, buds, or leaves, in which cases the germ must be widely distributed. Even here the author does not find continuity impossible. His proof that somatic nucleoplasm is not at certain growth stages changed into germ plasm, is found in the Hydroids, in which only certain cells in the body of numerous so-called embryonic cells are capable of becoming primitive germ cells. Expulsion of the polar bodies is explained by the supposition that they contain ovogenetic nucleoplasm which has served its purpose in building the egg, and must give place to the germ plasm which builds the embryo. It is held that nature generally pursues the sexual method of reproduction, and that the only way parthenogenesis could be prevented was by the production of eggs, which, after expelling the ovogenetic nucleoplasm, lost capability of growth until after fertilization.

The preface to the fifth chapter, "The Significance of Sexual Reproduction in the Theory of Natural Selection," contains a definition of acquired characters evidently made to order:

> "Only those new characters can be called 'acquired' which owe their origin to external influences, and the term 'acquired' must be denied to those which depend upon the mysterious relationship between the different hereditary tendencies which meet in the fertilized ovum. These latter are not 'acquired,' but inherited, although the ancestors did not possess them as such, but only as it were the elements of which they are composed."

Whenever the author succeeds in making out the significance of a structure, it always proves to be a fresh example of adaptation. In the relation of parts to the function of the whole everything depends on the adaptation. No part, not the minutest or most insignificant, has arisen in any other way than under the influence of the conditions of life, and the parts of the body conform to those conditions. Individual variability forms the most important foundation of the theory of natural selection. Although he does not in this connection deny that external influences may affect the germ, Weismann believes they have no share in producing hereditary individual characters. The source of these he finds in sexual or amphigonic reproduction, the object of which process is to create those individual differences which form the material out of which natural selection produces new species. This is in the face of the fact that individual differences do exist in the lowest unicellular organisms; and the argument is weakened further by the admission that the ultimate origin of individual differences lies in the direct action of external influences upon the organism. Our author asserts positively that hereditary variability can only arise in this way in these lowest organisms.

Chapter vi. continues the discussion of the theory of continuity as set forth in chapter iv. In all eggs requiring fertilization two polar bodies are expelled; in others only one. The first nuclear division removes the ovogenetic nucleoplasm; this is called the "equal division." The expulsion of the second body, "the reducing division," removes part of the germ plasm, and reduces the number of ancestral germ plasms by one-half; the addition of the sperm nucleus to the remainder restoring the original quantity. The reducing division does not take place in the parthenogenetic egg; it contains the necessary germ plasm, and is ready for development at once after the expulsion of the polar body removes the ovogenetic nucleoplasm. In parthenogenetic reproduction the whole of the ancestral germ plasms is transmitted to the embryo; in sexual reproduction half is derived from each parent, thus preventing the existence of the same hereditary combinations in the germ cells of individuals and securing an ever-varying supply of individual differences. Among facts brought forward in support of these views, we learn that children who are exactly alike are, without exception, twins, of the same sex, enclosed in the same membrane, and presumably derived from the same egg cell. Unlike twins are supposed to arise from two eggs.

The seventh essay is "On the Supposed Botanical Proofs of the Transmission of Acquired Characters," and the eighth is devoted to "The Supposed Transmission of Mutilations." The importance of the discussion in these chapters arises mainly from the fact that it is deemed absolutely necessary by advocates of selection to disprove such transmission. Without this they feel themselves unable to displace Lamarckism or to establish firmly their own theory. To define acquired characters so as to include only the accidental, the superficial, the transitory, or the individual renders denial more easy, but does not lead to a satisfactory settlement of the questions involved. Dr. Weismann says of the germ plasm that it is not an organism in the sense of being a microscopic facsimile, which has only to increase in size to become a mature organism. It follows that the changes required in it must differ from those acquired by the body of the parent; yet it is supposed that the former are produced by the latter as a result of correlation. To quote from the author himself:

> "I believe, however, that they [the inherited variations] can be referred to the various external influences to which the germ is exposed before the commencement of embryonic development. Hence we may fairly attribute to the adult organism influences which determine the phyletic development of its descendants. For the germ cells are contained in the organism, and the external influences which affect them are intimately connected with the state of the organism in which they lie hid."

In the case of a plant in which influence of climate causes a change in form of leaves from ovate to lobate, it is asserted that such a change could not be transferred in pollen or ovule as anything similar to leaves or form of leaves, for such have no existence in the germ plasm. The only thing that could happen would be, as the author says, changes in its molecular structure which bear no resemblance to those changes which are implied by the direct alteration of the form of the leaf in the parent plant. Very true, no resemblance; but if the wind, heat, dryness, etc., modify the shapes, they also affect food and habits and through them the germ. The consequence being an acquired tendency to vary from ovate to lobate leaf, it will be difficult to convince the many that the resulting shape is not an acquired character. Such inauguration and enhancement of predispositions take prominent places in the foundation of a "theory of tendencies," recently put forth, as we understand it. If well grounded, that theory greatly reduces the province of selection, since a tendency brought about by climate, for instance, would more or less affect the species as a whole, impressing effects to which the individuals must adapt themselves. As connected with this, may be noticed the comment on one of our author's experiments to prove non-transmission of mutilations, the oft-cited one in which the tails of mice were cut off to the fifth generation without the appearance of a short-tailed breed: "The Doctor should not have expected shorter tails, but rather, in consequence of the efforts to obtain the support or other assistance formerly derived from the organ, should have been prepared for the appearance of a tendency towards greater length."

From the words of the author it is evident that some of the hypotheses discussed still have undetermined values. The common end of all of them is natural selection. But it is not in his theories alone one is to look for the causes of the general interest in these papers, which, as he says, are but steps towards a more perfect knowledge; it is in the powerful and well-supported discussions, in the really important additions they make to science, and in the light they shed upon other theories which his own are intended to supersede. Like Darwin, of whom he is a worthy, though not an entirely orthodox, disciple, Dr. Weismann prefers to build upon facts verified by himself, and it is a question whether it would not have been to the advantage of the scientific world had he started equally unpledged to any theory.

BOOKS ABOUT THE STAGE.

A Memoir of Edward Askew Sothern. By T. Edgar Pemberton. London: Richard Bentley & Son.

Players and Playwrights I have Known. By John Coleman. London: Chatto & Windus.

Brief Chronicles. By William Winter. New York: The Dunlap Society.

Le Théâtre de la Foire, la Comédie-Italienne et l'Opéra - Comique. Par Maurice Drack. Première série, 1658 à 1720. Paris: Firmin-Didot; New York: F. W. Christern.

Les Jeux du Cirque et la Vie Foraine. Par Hugues Le Roux. Paris: E. Plon, Nourrit & Cie.; New York: F. W. Christern.

MR. PEMBERTON'S memoir of Sothern is the ordinary theatrical biography, neither more nor less. It has no consecutive account of Sothern's career; it has no informing analysis of his ability as a comedian; it has no complete list of the parts played by him—and it cannot be said too often or too emphatically that a list of the characters performed by an actor is absolutely indispensable in his biography, as it is one of the most important means of estimating his final position. Mr. Pemberton evidently knows little or nothing of Mr. Sothern's parentage, birth, and bringing up; his chief reliance seems to have been on an American

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book called 'Birds of a Feather'—a cloth-bound book which the British biographer terms a *brochure*. The most of Sothern's theatrical career was passed in America, and Mr. Pemberton knows little or nothing about the American stage. He seems to think that Sothern was successful as *Armand* when Miss Heron produced "Camille," and he nowhere records the epigrammatic criticism of a New York critic that Mr. Sothern's *Armand* had "every characteristic of a poker except its occasional warmth." Apparently Mr. Pemberton is unaware that the plot of "Sam," which the late John Oxenford wrote for Sothern when the public began to tire of *Lord Dundreary*, was taken from the German. These defects are for the most part trifles in themselves, but they indicate Mr. Pemberton's deficiencies as a writer on a theatrical subject. The fact is, that Mr. Sothern was a comedian of remarkable, though limited, powers, and of an unusual individuality; he deserved a better biographer than Mr. Pemberton, who seems to think that his hero's chief title to attention is derived from the abundant practical jokes recorded here to depress the spirits of all sensible people.

Mr. John Coleman is himself an actor, and he knows the stage thoroughly; he has even read some of the books about it, an achievement far rarer among actors than most persons would imagine. He has the courage of his opinions; he is a good hater, and he sets down in plainest black and white what he thinks of Macready, the Charles Keans, Charles James Mathews, and Mme. Vestris, the Wigans, Benjamin Webster, the late John Ryder, and others. From his earlier biography he condenses his account of Phelps. He is at his best in the chapter describing his relations with Charles Reade, and perhaps nowhere else can so clear an insight into Reade's character be had as in these careless and hearty paragraphs of Mr. Coleman's. We know now that Charles Reade is not to fill as important a place in the history of literature as he was once thought likely to occupy, but he deserves a better biography than the misshapen and uninformed life thrown together by his nephew; and these chapters of Mr. Coleman's, and the papers which Mr. House printed in the *Atlantic*, are among the sources of information which the future biographer will most value. Reade's collaborator, Tom Taylor, a dull man who edited *Punch* and adapted French plays, Palgrave Simpson (also an adapter), and Tom Robertson are among the playwrights Mr. Coleman considers. In the chapter on Robertson he insinuates that the author of "Caste" derived the suggestion of that neat little comedy from Barrière's "Vie d'une Comédienne," but this is one of the most unfounded and foolish suppositions extant. In the chapter on Macready Mr. Coleman gives a full account of the hissing of Macready by Forrest in Edinburgh, an "incident" at which he "assisted"—to use two French idioms. It is to be noted that Mr. Coleman thought very highly of Forrest's acting.

'Brief Chronicles' is the neat title Mr. William Winter has given to a collection of outline biographies of the leading actors and actresses who have been seen on our stage during the past thirty years. Most of them are obituary notices, recalling the facts and characteristics of the departed actor while yet he lay unburied; and, as the author declares, the "reader will find here the impressions, set down while still fresh, that were made by various distinguished and interesting men and women of the stage upon a writer of the time," who had seen all of them and who knew most of them personally. Nothing fades more quickly than the fame of an actor not of the first rank and not dying in the full radiance of the footlights; and Mr. Winter's sympathetic summary of their careers is almost the only memorial of many of the minor people of the stage who have passed away during the last quarter of a century, and who were too inconspicuous to call forth a volume of biography. Even the more important performers sometimes fare better at Mr. Winter's hands than in their set biographies. Mr. Sothern, for example, makes an impression far less distinct in Mr. Pemberton's volume than he does in the ten pages of these 'Brief Chronicles' of Mr. Winter's; and from neither of the long biographies of Charlotte Cushman can so good an idea of her merits be obtained as in the acute study of her art which is included in the sketch of her life prepared by Mr. Winter when she died. Perhaps the same might be said of Forrest, of whom there are three biographies, and of Lester Wallack, a review of whose empty 'Memories' is here included—a review couched in terms of eulogy, but adequately admitting the self-satisfaction and egotism which were the chief characteristics of the last manager of Wallack's Theatre. Among the others of whom Mr. Winter writes, always with sympathy and delicacy, always with full knowledge of the history of the stage in England and America, and always with an obvious bias in favor of those whose work tended upward, are Edwin Adams, John Brougham, Fechter, Hackett, Matilda Heron, Laura Keene, John McCullough, H. J. Montague, John T. Raymond, Mark Smith, and Mrs. Vernon.

M. Maurice Drack, a dramatic critic of repute and a dramatist of experience (an adaptation of his "P'tiote" was once brought out in New York), has prepared the first of a series of volumes intended to contain the chief plays acted in the minor theatres which existed in Paris under the shadow of the Opéra and the Comédie-Française, and which developed slowly into the Opéra-Comique and into the predecessors of the Porte-Saint-Martin and the Palais-Royal of to-day. The ten comedies or farces here collected were acted either by the Comédie-Italienne or at the Théâtre de la Foire. Some of them suggest the local plays of Mr. Edward Harrigan, which are essentially like the Italian *commedie dell' arte* in the use of typical characters recurring in successive plays, and in the commingling of music and "variety business" with a regular plot. In Italian, the characters were *Pulcinella*, *Stentorello*, etc.; in French they are *Arlequin*, *Colombine*, *Lucas*, etc.; and in America they were the negro preacher (the *Rev. Pewter Palestine*, for instance), the typical German, Irishman, Chinaman, etc.

What is most interesting in M. Hugues Le Roux's new book about acrobats and contortionists and circus-riders and lion-tamers and show-folks generally, is the series of colored illustrations by that very clever painter, the late Jules Garnier. In the main, they have nothing to do with the text; indeed, it seems as though the author and the artist had worked separately, and that the pictures had been scattered throughout the text as appropriately as possible. M. Garnier was a Frenchman, and, of course, his portrait of Mr. Barnum naturalizes that American as a Frenchman; but he has given here a series of views of show-life and a series of portraits of show-people hitherto unequalled. We remark by the way that in an English translation of this book, recently issued, it is said to be from the French of MM. Le Roux and Garnier!—this being intended, perhaps, to soften the anger of the artist when he should discover that his colored sketches appear in the British book in barren black and white. M. Le Roux's preface leads the reader to expect much that is new, but the book contains little not already known to those interested in the subject. He is not quite so much of a pioneer in writing about the circus and its associated shows as he seems to think. He does not know, apparently, Strutt's 'Sports and Pastimes,' or the two books on 'Circus Life and Circus Celebrities,' and the 'Old London Fairs.' He does not know 'Hard Times,' or Albert Smith's circus novel, or 'Toby Tyler.' He does not mention even 'L'Hercule' of M. Léon Cladel, although of course he cites the 'Frères Zemganno' of M. de Goncourt and 'La Petite Lambton' of M. "Philippe Daryll," to whom the book is dedicated. But though 'Les Jeux du Cirque' is a little lacking in novelty, it is amusing and attractive. Perhaps it should be pointed out that part of one chapter (pp. 184-189) M. Le Roux had already printed as a short story in his 'Entre Hommes' (pp. 261-269).

TEXT-BOOKS IN PHYSICS.

Laboratory Manual of Experimental Physics. By Albert L. Arey, C.E. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. 1890. 12mo.

The Elements of Laboratory Work. By A. G. Earl. Longmans, Green & Co.

Elementary Dynamics of Particles and Solids. By W. M. Hicks. Macmillan & Co. 12mo.

Electrical Engineering. For electric-light artisans and students. By W. Slingo and A. Brooker. Longmans, Green & Co. 1890.

The Physical Properties of Gases. By Arthur L. Kimball. Riverside Science Series. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1890.

MR. AREY'S little 'Laboratory Manual' is well worthy of the attention of teachers. It contains a description of the apparatus necessary for making each of seventy experiments, together with directions for the experiments themselves and for what may be termed a discussion of the results. Very well-contrived blank tabular forms are given, in which the student may enter his results, a tabular form accompanying the description of each experiment. The student is thus shown how to make an experiment and how to discuss it when made. The subjects treated are: Properties of Matter, Fluids, Dynamics, Heat, Sound, Light, Electricity, and Magnetism. The apparatus suggested is, as a rule, very simple and well selected. An appendix contains an account of some more costly instruments. An intelligent boy of fifteen, with a fair power of using tools, ought to be able to make some of the simpler apparatus for himself, and would probably need but little help from a teacher. The book belongs to a class of works which have, within the last few years, become very numerous, and, while very elementary, it deserves to take rank among the best.

Mr. Earl's 'Elements' is of the same general character as that which we have just noticed, but is far more elaborate, and is intended for much more advanced students. The study of it would require greater maturity of mind and, frequently at least, the assistance of a teacher. A large part of the work is almost purely chemical, and recalls the expression "chemical physics," soon, we trust, to pass into oblivion. The work, in spite of its name, is not merely a laboratory manual, but to a great extent a treatise, while the questions asked are in general to be answered by actual experiment. We are not at all sure that the work will find favor

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in this country, because it attempts to do too much, and cannot replace special treatises on the different subjects of which it treats, or the larger works on experimental physics. Still, it is by no means without merit, and to some teachers it may be of real value.

Mr. Hicks's work, as he states in his preface, is intended for the use of students with no knowledge of mathematics beyond the elements of algebra and pure geometry. From this point of view the work is a very good one, and is likely to receive a cordial welcome. It forms an excellent introduction to works on mechanics in which the higher analysis is employed, as it enables the student who has mastered the purely geometrical treatment of the subject to get a clear knowledge of general mechanical principles. From this point of view the work will also form a good introduction to elementary works on physics. A great number of problems and exercises are given, and materially add to the value of the work.

Messrs. Slingo and Brooker state in their preface that their work was designed to cover the extensive syllabus of the City and Guilds of London Institute, and that it embraces the requirements not only of those engaged in electric lighting, but also of those who, with little or no electrical knowledge, have under their supervision various kinds of electrical machinery. The work is likely to prove of great value in this country as well as in England. We have no elementary treatise upon the same subject which covers anything like the same ground. In seven chapters introductory to the main part of the work the authors treat with sufficient thoroughness fundamental electrical principles, units of measurement, and the more modern methods of determining resistances and electro-motive and current forces. They wisely include the galvanic battery in its different forms as steps in instruction which have a real value, though the galvanic battery itself is fast becoming antiquated as regards all practical applications. There is a sufficient account of Ohm's theory, and we come then to the subjects of electro-magnets and electro-magnetic induction. With this introduction the student is prepared to understand the different forms of dynamo-electric machines, both direct and alternating, of which a large number are described with excellent woodcuts illustrating construction, methods of winding armatures, and other needful details. We have then various forms of electric motors, and then chapters upon transformers, secondary batteries, arc lamps, incandescent lamps, and finally a valuable chapter on installation, equipment, fittings, etc. The style is clear and the mathematical part of the work sufficient for a purely practical treatise. The advanced student will need a more elaborate mathematical treatment of the theoretical questions presented, but such treatment could hardly be expected in a work like the present. It is safe to predict for the book an extended popularity among practical men.

The little work on 'The Physical Properties of Gases' is an agreeably written popular treatise which any intelligent reader can easily master, and which can hardly fail to open up a new world of thought and observation to a large class. Little or no mathematical reasoning is employed. The work is clearly written, and embraces all the really essential parts of the subject. It will hardly serve as a text-book for schools, from its non-mathematical form; but as an excellent presentation of a very interesting subject with which all educated persons should be familiar, it deserves a cordial recognition.

James Macdonell, Journalist. By W. Robertson Nicoll. London: Hodder & Stoughton. 1890.

ONE hope, the dearest, perhaps, to all men of letters, is denied the journalist. High as his ambition may soar, enduring fame is beyond its reach. However brilliant his achievements may be, they go nameless before the world; and should they by a rare exception come to attract attention to themselves, the glory attaches to the journal and not to the man. For it is, after all, the humbler intellectual wants that the journalist must satisfy—wants which are important, which are, indeed, imperative, but which, because of their very necessity and their frequent recurrence, are classed among ordinary things. They are "every-day" matters; and, as the very name of journalism shows, the labor of satisfying them is ephemeral. There may be no lack of either disposition or ability to be thorough, but the conditions of the journalist's work do not admit of it. He writes for men who are hurried, and he, perforce, writes hurriedly. He cannot choose the subject which he can best handle, and, if he could, considerations of policy would often restrict the expression of his own convictions. Even if fortune favors him in both theme and opportunity, he is hampered by the necessity of being brief. Like the makers of sonnets, he must say what he has to say within fixed limits, but, unlike them, he must also say it within a fixed time. He must be quick, short, and clear, or his craft will have none of him; as to his other qualities, they may be as pleases God.

But while the journalist can never hope to see his labors attain the dignity of "works," and must forego the desire to have his name held in honor by posterity, or even, for the most part, by his contemporaries, he can attain the more solid satisfaction of the conscious exertion of power. He may feel that while much of his labor is of little higher order than that of the grocer or the baker, it may from time to time influence, and influence perceptibly, the course of human events. He can not only direct and repress the great motive power of society, public opinion, but he can sometimes positively create it. But it is a mistake to suppose that he can accomplish anything by mere will power. He may apparently arouse ignorant passion by ignorant passion, but tempests of this kind make no enduring impression upon human affairs, and, when serious, are the results of deeper forces than any journalistic raving. A trifling matter, as Aristotle said, may occasion a revolution, but cannot cause one. If the journalist is to exert influence, he must possess power, and this power must be trained. Mere talent for writing is of no avail unless it is educated, and this education is not to be gained in any ridiculous "school of journalism," but by the study of many branches of knowledge and the mastery of some.

Of education in the narrow sense in which the word is generally used, the subject of this memoir had little. Of comparatively humble birth, he was reared in what would be looked upon outside of Scotland as poverty, and he had no regular teaching except what the parish schoolmaster could give. But the Scotch schoolmaster was sometimes no ordinary man, and of Mr. McPherson, whose pupil James Macdonell was for a year, it is said: "At a dinner in London some years ago, five of his old pupils were present. Two were ex-Premiers of Australian colonies; one a famous Indian soldier, who has filled the highest offices; a fourth the chief of the medical staff in India, and the fifth an American millionaire, whose name is familiar to every railway-man." To this influence was added that of Mr. McCombie, the editor of the Aberdeen *Free Press*, together with Hugh Miller, the most notable of the self-taught men of Scotland, "who, even while he held the plough, was studying speculative philosophy," and who dominated Aberdeenshire by his combined intellectual and moral force. But it was his own striving that educated Macdonell. He was brought up a Roman Catholic, but became a Protestant after a prolonged and profound study, not only of differences of creeds, but also of church history and general theology. In this internal struggle his whole nature was developed, and at the same time he acquired a familiarity with the ecclesiastical movements in Scotland and with certain departments of philosophy that was afterwards to stand him in good stead. In his leisure hours he taught himself French, and eventually became well-versed in both the literature and history of France.

At the age of sixteen Macdonell went to Aberdeen as a clerk, but, under the encouragement of Mr. McCombie, he soon began to write for the *Free Press*, and, when only nineteen years old, was engaged to contribute the leading articles during the absence of the editor. This determined his career, and within two years he obtained an engagement as sub-editor of an Edinburgh paper. In a twelvemonth he became editor of the *Express* at Newcastle, and, almost within the same period, attained the position of assistant editor of the *Telegraph* of London, refusing a similar post on the *Scotsman*. Here he remained ten years, becoming in 1875 a member of the staff of the *Times*, and continuing there during the last three or four years of his life. Like most of his trade, he burned the candle at both ends, and died at thirty-seven.

Mr. Nicoll observes that this book is "perhaps the only life of a journalist pure and simple ever written." It is certainly full of instruction for those who think of entering that occupation, but we should say that it is the life rather of the man Macdonell than of the journalist. Much information is given as to what he wrote and how he wrote, and as to how he prepared himself to write, but the charm of the book lies in the character that it reveals—a character, we fear, that can hardly be accepted as typical. Macdonell's life was singularly pure and noble, and he was deservedly successful and happy. But he was the victim of the cruel overwork that seems almost inseparable from his calling, and it is difficult to enjoy the delightful letters which his biographer has collected, when we reflect that the time given to them was borrowed at a frightful interest from the hours that should have been devoted to rest. Mr. Nicoll has performed his task gracefully and with fidelity, and we heartily commend his book to American readers.

The New Spirit. By Havelock Ellis. Scribner & Welford.

MR. ELLIS has taken into his brain many ideas, and, in giving them out in this book of essays with some color from his own personality, he affords the best example we have lately had of the fermentation of modern literary thought. He has natural audacity which will shock some and amuse others, and the offhand way in which he makes some novel remark of apparently tremendous significance is, perhaps, the most telling of his traits. The coming destruction of England by the Suez Canal, just like the overthrow of Venice by the discovery of the Cape route, as he thinks, is

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mentioned as a thing of course: the mother-country, he predicts, will soon be no more than a museum of antiquities for the colonies. He ventures the assertion that the predominant English strain is Scandinavian, and apotheosizes William Morris as its late incarnation. He goes so far as to intimate that the fact that woman is the practical half of the race involves as its necessary consequence the passing of the practical art of government into her hands, after which happy consummation man, the idealist, will have room to develop in his own sphere of the fine arts and their cognate realms of imagination and fancy. But such matters as these are not the substance of his book—they are only preparatory and by the way; the body of the volume is occupied with a critical exposition of the "New Spirit" already moving in the latest modern world.

The men he has chosen to show forth this regeneration are Diderot, Heine, Whitman, Ibsen, and Tolstoi. It is a sign, probably, of his belief in the degeneracy of his country that there is not an Englishman on the list. The Frenchman represents the starting-point of the change; the German-French-Jew stands for the half-way period of romanticism; the American, Norwegian, and Russian for the things that now are. Each of these essays is a thorough and well-considered piece of work, admirable in information, firm in grasp, stimulating in style, appreciative in matter, and the survey afforded is broad. It is singular that in no place do we find out just what the "New Spirit" is—we are left to make that out for ourselves; and this seems to us a misfortune. We get no further than a vague impression that the democratic and social ideas of the race are growing and spreading; but of their good or evil, their ground or consequence, there is nothing said. In other words, we have here the book of a young mind which finds its new ideas so surprising that it is carried away by the mere current and fervor of the experience of them. They are in reality few, but they seem many; they are old, but they seem new; they are doubtful and confused, but they seem to the mind that entertains them the revolution of the world.

This is the description and, one may say, the transcript of a youthful mind with broad views and various culture. There is, however, a lack of perspective in the scene, and of the reasonable temper, which are generally looked for in any except juvenile work. It is a sign of this intellectual puberty that Mr. Ellis speaks with quite unnecessary frankness of certain parts of Whitman's poetry and theory which even Whitman's admirers are fain to pass over in silence, and that he sympathizes too plainly with the "naturalism" of the poet; and frequently in the volume one comes upon remarks that suggest a pæan upon sex scientifically, philosophically, and poetically. We do not very well understand in America the foreign repute of our great democrat in verse, and the present essay upon Walt Whitman, though it is the most complete we have seen, does not much assist us. He serves here as the exponent of democracy and of the "natural" man, and so helps to fill out the round of ideas; criticism of him, under such circumstances, is of course panegyric. Ibsen brings before us the uselessness of social conventions, and Tolstoi religion undefiled. A final chapter treats more generally of religion, in a large style and unsatisfactorily enough; and so the book ends as it began.

From what has been said it will be seen that error has, to our thinking, no small share in these essays, and that, nevertheless, it is not without a generous quality. Fermentation, the word we originally used, best describes the volume. It is an altogether unusual work, both for its ambition and for its matter; it brings the reader near to some of the marked ideas of the time, though mainly by way of exposition, without adequate criticism; and as a first book it is a sign of a vigorous intellectual mind.

Robert Browning: Essays and Thoughts. By John T. Nettleship. Scribner & Welford. 1890.

NEARLY one-half of the four hundred and fifty pages of this volume were originally published twenty years ago, and marked the beginning of the study of Browning rather on the ethical than the poetical side. The essays were well fitted to open lines of thought, and to bring out the identical moods and principles variously illustrated in miscellaneous poems. Nothing more admirable in this kind of criticism has been produced by later writers, and these original essays are now supplemented by as much more matter dealing largely with the poet's works since 1868 in the same painstaking manner. They are, however, far from being easy reading. The paper upon "Fifine at the Fair," for example, requires as much resolution in the attack by the reader as do the verses themselves, and the other papers, which contain an exegesis of the later poems, are nearly as dry, formal, and difficult. The volume is, therefore, an aid to study, and appeals only to minds capable of intellectual labor of considerable strain. The question of the worth of these prose translations of the poems is secondary to that of the poems themselves; but if one wishes to follow Browning through his later years, he could not find a more conscientious guide. It is interesting to observe in the midst of this mass of explanation that the author protests vigorously against the view that Browning is to be regarded as a preacher and moralist primarily, and not as a poet and artist. His art, nevertheless, is not the subject of any essay. Mr. Nettleship is a thorough devotee of his master, and uses phrases with regard to him which have no excuse for being in a book of criticism. It is clear, moreover, that it is Browning's thought and spirit which have attracted this idolatry, and not his poetry as such. Idolatry has, at all events, led to faithful and prolonged study, such as used to be given to Scripture in old time, and the collected results of this application are valuable to others of the sect. Taken in connection with Mrs. Sutherland Orr's 'Handbook,' this volume ought to be sufficient as a guide to the most persistent and deep-thoughted of all Brownings.

L'Instruction publique en Égypte. Par Yacoub Artin Pacha. Paris: Ernest Leroux. 1890.

IN this the first systematic work of its kind, necessarily the major portion is taken up with an account of the Mohammedan system of education and learning, its methods and history, and the well-known close relationship of all instruction with the religious life of the people. This the author has done systematically and well without too great detail. Though looking through French spectacles, he has performed a valuable service in an impartial manner, freely adding pertinent extracts from English writers and reports not accessible to the general public. One gains from him a good view of the current of modern knowledge meeting the Moslem system from the beginning of this century under the favor of Mehemet Ali, with all its varying checks and flow during subsequent reigns to the present tentative and fairly established plans under a tolerably prosperous financial régime. There are six well-proportioned chapters, followed by six annexes of statistics of schools and their character, number of pupils, names of directors, lists of subjects taught, number of young men sent to Europe from 1813 to the present time, with their subsequent careers, and finally a list of journals, Egyptian and foreign.

Half of the book is taken up with an interesting account of Moslem learning, including references to the great schools of Syria, Asia, Spain, and the great Mosque University of Cairo, "El Azhar," with quotations from famous writers, the Prophet, and others, on the glories and distinctions of the learned. Such a general view is essential to the comprehension of the present state of education in Egypt. The author is at pains to show that learning and science in the centuries of the Moslem conquests were superior to what Christian nations could show, and also that Mohammedanism is not inimical to the enlightenment of the female sex. He quotes freely in support of these statements, and refers to the writings of at least two remarkable Egyptian women. He has published several theses on Oriental subjects, and has had unusual facilities for acquiring accurate information on his present subject; his father and uncle having been members of the first council on public instruction appointed by Mehemet Ali in 1836.

The glory of El-Azhar, founded in 975, mainly in opposition to the Sunnites of Bagdad in the strife of the sects, culminated in the fifteenth century, when 20,000 students thronged its halls. From that time to the present it has steadily declined, and is now little more than a decaying memory and a school of Moslem theology and law. Every community has its mosque or mosques; and its imams, fakirs, and ulemas teach the same petrified system of memorizing the Koran, reading and writing in the Arabic, whether in rude mud hovels or under the shadow of resplendent minarets. It was not until two hundred years after the Conquest that the mass of Berbers became converted to Islamism, and the comparatively small number of Copts are now generally Protestants. Moslems know little beyond the Koran, some romance and poetry, and Arabic grammar, and have long lost the eminence gained by them in the Middle Ages in the cultivation of astronomy, algebra, and the natural sciences. The Copts, Greeks, and "Franks" have for ages carried on the finances and commercial transactions for their masters, the Turks and Arabs.

Among Mussulmans instruction is begun at six or eight years of age, and usually ceases at ten or twelve. Those who go further procure Government employment, or ultimately enter the religious hierarchy, the leaders of the people in all respects. It was the genius of Mehemet Ali that saw the need of change, and let in the stream of Western knowledge, solely to save his country and people. In answer to a question, one of the members of the Council of Education in 1852 stated that about 10 per cent. of males and 1 per thousand of females could read and write. When it is remembered that only in 1884 was the kourbash abolished, in 1882 thirty-two slave-dealers existed in Cairo alone, and the corvée annually caused thousands to perish, this state of affairs need cause no wonder. In 1816 Mehemet Ali engaged Italians to teach military science, and established some schools, mainly, however, for the officers of his army; and he sent forty young men to noted schools in Italy, followed by some others to England, and finally exclusively to France, who were

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placed in the administration, in his army, and at the head of native technical schools. The first lot, returning after eight years, were locked up in the citadel at Cairo by their practical sovereign and made to produce translations or original works on technical subjects most familiar to them, which were forthwith printed at the newly instituted printing establishment at Boulak.

In 1836 the first Council and Ministry of Public Instruction was formed, and primary and secondary schools sprang up over Egypt, with special and technical schools in the larger cities and Cairo, including some for music, medicine, and the arts. Pupils from the Turkish and Mameluke families, and white slaves, not being sufficient, the lower Egyptians were *forced* to attend. This scheme was based on French models and was in theory adequate, but practically nearly useless and wasteful, and lasted fifteen years. The succeeding pashas did little or nothing, notably from 1848 to 1863. All this time pupils were kept in European schools, and Ibraham Pasha compelled his officers to send their sons at private expense, hoping for better results from the latter plan. More genuine progress followed the efforts of a Swiss pedagogue, Dor Bey, from 1863 on, who, under great difficulties, established the present Normal or High School at Cairo, the pupils coming from El-Azhar and being prepared as instructors for the schools of the country. The first school for females was opened in 1873.

After 1840, the foreign nationalities and colonies established their own schools with the aid of the Catholic orders, and the Copts were converted to Protestantism in large numbers by the English and American missionaries. After 1860, the American mission-schools attracted notice and extended over the greater part of the country, and were not confined to Copts alone. In the public schools, French, Italian, and latterly English, along with history, arithmetic, geometry, and drawing, are added to the study of the Koran in Arabic. There are also native pious and charitable schools and foundations, and for a short time several large mixed public schools existed in the larger cities, and were frequented by foreign and native children. Orthodox Moslems incessantly object to European instruction and the study of the natural sciences, for, as they justly say, their young men cease to be true believers.

The number of pupils in the primary communal schools in 1887 exceeded 120,000, the number of schools being 7,142. The rate of increase since 1840 is estimated at 4 per cent.; since 1875 at 6 per cent. The number of pupils in schools under foreign auspices is 22,764, more than 15,000 of whom are native Egyptians. It is estimated that at present 25 per cent. of males and 2 per cent. of females can read and write. In 1838 but one female school existed, and that for Copts alone, under Mrs. Leader, an English lady; the number of pupils is now 6,000, and their rapid progress is remarked. In 1840 there were only two journals, official, in Turkish and Arabic and printed at Boulak; now there are thirty-three (eighteen in European languages), and the two official journals are in Arabic and French. The printing establishments number fifteen, the original one at Boulak producing the bulk of educational works and translations into Arabic. In its first eleven years it issued 160 Turkish, Persian, and Arabic books.

The impression made by all this endeavor thus far is considerable, though to the practical Anglo-Saxon, who does not fully realize the *laissez-faire* and indolent character of the people and their mentors, there is hardly any education worthy the name. Little practical application of it is to be seen, and the people as a rule are steeped in the degradation of a truly miserable existence. Poverty, filth, preventable disease, and waste of life strike the traveller nearly as keenly as in other and more distant countries where public instruction is not thought of. We are not told what is the sum annually expended by the Minister of Public Instruction; but, as Government statistics in Egypt on most subjects are wofully inaccurate, the omission is not serious. A fuller index should have been provided.

Winchester. By G. W. Kitchin. [Historic Towns. Edited by E. A. Freeman and William Hunt.] Longmans. 1890. 8vo, pp. xiv., 227.

EXCEPTING London, no English town has a more interesting history than Winchester. It is hard to realize that this quiet little city once rivalled London in importance, and down to the thirteenth century played a very prominent part in the history of England. Dean Kitchin gives an excellent outline of the rise and decline of this historic town.

The author's account of the development of the civic constitution of Winchester is admirable, though very limited in scope. We think, however, that he errs in some matters of detail. There is no good authority for the statements that "in 856 Æthelwulf had granted Winchester a Merchant Guild" (p. 159), and that this fraternity "is said to have been the first corporation permitted to exist within the Kingdom" (p. 166). The Gild Merchant was not established in England until after the Norman Conquest. Equally untenable is the conjecture, that the Knights' Gild of Winchester was "the original civic corporation" of that city, and was merged into the Gild Merchant (p. 74). The word "hantachevesle" (p. 74) would probably have troubled the author less had he known that it is a misreading; "hantachensele" is the proper reading, according to the manuscript of the Winton Domesday owned by the Society of Antiquaries of London. The word seems to mean "the hall of the Knights' Hanse." There were also two other Knights' halls in Winchester early in the twelfth century. Perhaps "tregilda" in the Winton Domesday refers to these three Knights' Gilds. The author thinks that the word refers to the Gild Merchant, the Knights' Gild, and the Palmers' Gild (p. 74).

This volume, more than any other of the series, impresses us with the conviction that the series might have done much more for the advancement of knowledge had its scope been less wide. The list of authors includes such competent historians as Freeman, Creighton, Hunt, Boase, and Kitchin. They are asked to bring out, in each of these small volumes, "the general historic position" of a town, "the special part each played in the general history of the Kingdom." Now the general histories of England and most of the older local histories give much information on this part of the subject, while the development of the municipal government, or the civic constitution of English towns, has been greatly neglected. The series does not aim to fill this void. Dean Kitchin—who has evidently made good use of original local records—would probably have found it a much more congenial task to have given a full account of the history of Winchester's civic constitution, to have traced in detail the growth of the powers of the various conflicting authorities in Winchester (the town magistrates, the King, the Bishop, etc.), and their final consolidation into one municipal government. If not more congenial, it would at any rate have been a more profitable task.

Paris. Par Auguste Vitu. Paris: Maison Quantin; New York: F. W. Christern.

THE Paris Exhibition of 1867 called forth the extraordinary 'Paris-Guide' in two volumes, to which almost every French author of note contributed, and for which Victor Hugo (then in exile) wrote a flamboyant preface. 'Paris-Guide' was an expensive failure, and the fate of its publishers probably deterred any one in 1878 from attempting any very important book about Paris. But last year, when the fourth great French Exhibition was held after the usual interval of eleven years, the Maison Quantin announced a sumptuous tome about Paris, to be written by M. Vitu, illustrated by half-a-thousand views, and to contain about as many folio pages. The ship on the shield of Paris may sail a troubled sea, but it carries a goodly cargo, to which the artists have contributed their full share. Perhaps the first impression made by this lordly volume is one of delighted wonder at the persistence and the continuity, the high value and the wide variety, of French architecture and of French art, as we see them reproduced here to illustrate M. Vitu's summary of the city's history and his outline of its present organization. M. Vitu is the dramatic critic of the *Figaro*, and he is therefore a lively writer; he is an antiquary of fair repute, and he is therefore trustworthy; but the illustrations make the text pale. They are all process blocks, scratchy at times, slovenly even, but effective generally; yet the city they attempt to reproduce is so varied, so beautiful, so rich, so artistic, so full of light and color and life, that the occasional demerits of the drawing disappear before the merits of the thing reproduced.

Walks in Epping Forest. New edition.—*Walks in Holland*, Cycling, Boating, by Rail and on Foot.—*Walks in the Ardennes*, with Boating, Fishing, Cycling, and Shooting Notes. By Percy Lindley. London, 125 Fleet Street.

BRITISH guide-books to the cities or districts of the Continent are sometimes well written, and often contain much valuable information in the fields of history and art; but the information they give about railways, inns, roads, and the like is nearly always meagre, and out of date at that. This is why the Baedeker guides, though ill-printed, and no more interesting than a time-table, are so much used. To our mind, the best guides, if one can read German, are Meyer's; they contain, one may almost say, *everything* which the traveller may wish to know, and their typography, maps, and illustrations are well nigh perfect. The abridgments (called *Wegweiser*) are particularly to be commended to foot-travellers, or those who need to practise economy.

Mr. Percy Lindley, however, has begun to publish a series which are more "practical" than Meyer, even, and give more for the price than any books on any subject with which we are acquainted. Their first merit is, that they seem to have been written because the author loves the country described, and wishes others to share his enjoyment; whereas the usual attitude of a guide-book-maker is that of an auctioneer hired to proclaim the merits of a particular "lot" of places for this occasion only. Mr. Lindley's motto is from Washington Irving: "Recollect, my friend, that I am tired of churches, convents, palaces, galleries of paintings, subterranean passages, and great men. If you have anything else to show me, *allons!*" He has produced, so far, only three

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little volumes, printed in two columns of leaded nonpareil, with plenty of maps and lithographed illustrations, good enough for the purpose, though very different from the beautiful little steel engravings of Meyer. All this, bound in boards, in a shape to be easily carried in the pocket, is given for sixpence!

The Brain of an Army. A popular account of the German General Staff. By Spencer Wilkinson, author of 'Citizen Soldier.' Macmillan & Co. 12mo, pp. 115.

THIS is one of a series of military handbooks published in England for the benefit, primarily, of the volunteer service, which have established for the author a high reputation as a military critic. It gives within a small compass a clear idea of the vastness and complexity of the task of mobilizing a great European army and entering upon a campaign with it. It is in relation to this that the author discusses the importance and value of the German General Staff organization, and the manner in which it fulfils the function of the "brain of the army."

An American reader will need to read such a book with an ever-present remembrance of a fact which will only be found between the lines of European publications on the subject, viz., that where hereditary princes are, for political and dynastic reasons, made commanders of armies, the chief of staff becomes the "brain" of the organization in a much higher sense than in cases where the highest command is open to unrestricted competition. With this reservation this little book cannot be too highly commended for the force with which it brings out the idea that modern warfare on a great scale involves problems so vast and so delicate that a trained body of staff officers is necessary, not merely for the administrative and bureaucratic work in the departments of the Adjutant and Quartermaster-General, the ordnance, the commissariat, the Surgeon-General's office, and in the Engineer's, but also for the general assistance of the commander in all that pertains to his handling of the whole army and all its departments as a unit. If a general-in-chief be a man competent to be his own chief of staff, the value of the assistance rendered by a highly trained general staff would be none the less, though more subordinate to his own brain and will.

American soldiers need also to note well that the education given at such a school as West Point is presupposed before an officer enters upon the most rudimentary part of the staff training according to the European idea and practice. Indeed, our military academy can hardly be ranked as a military school at all in the German sense, and unless its graduates supplement their work by independent study in the directions indicated in Wilkinson's chapters, it might be broadly said that there is no staff education in the United States.

What I Remember. By Thomas Adolphus Trollope. Vol. II. Harper & Bros. 1890.

MR. TROLLOPE continues in his second volume the reminiscences of Italy, and his later life there, which he agreeably set forth in the previous one. Much of this volume is devoted to pleasure trips in Switzerland, the Tyrol, Austria, Germany, and France, in which the experience of the general traveller receives illustration. The more interesting portions describe Florence as it was when it was the capital, and the unfortunate effect of the removal to Rome upon his own private fortune. There are, perhaps, fewer notable characters in his list of guests, and less is told of them, but our Minister, Marsh, comes in for pleasant words of remembrance and appreciation; and of Italians Francesco dall' Ongaro, Salvini, Molmenti (and may we not include Rawdon Brown?) are examples. Longfellow also appears in the Florentine drawing-rooms, and Emerson at Rome. Mr. Trollope thought Emerson inferior to Arnold: "To me Arnold appeared a far more many-sided man, gifted with a much larger receptivity, and stronger capacity for assimilating all the mental pabulum to be sucked out of all that was around him"; but it is to be said that Emerson did not seem to like Rome and things Roman. Among the curiosities of the volume are a couple of ghost stories such as the Society for Psychical Research prizes, and a description of the preparation of human flesh made by Signor Marini, who reduced it to the consistency and condition of marble, "capable of receiving the highest polish." The brain and liver were thus treated, and a table is described, "very beautiful and highly polished," of many colors, which was made from different portions of human flesh. The anecdote of Pope Pius IX. consenting to give the reporter of a New York paper his allocution at the creating of Cardinal McCloskey, because he was impressed by the cost of telegraphing it, is entertaining: "Five thousand francs! I rejoice that our words are so highly valued by your people!" Such bits of humor are rare, but there are other anecdotes, pictures of extraordinary spectacles, tourist adventures, and the like, which enliven the book.

Catalogue of the Cuneiform Tablets in the Kouyunjik Collection of the British Museum. By C. Bezold. Vol. I. Printed by Order of the Trustees. London. 1889.

THE Trustees of the British Museum have determined to publish a catalogue of their collection of cuneiform tablets, and they have secured the services of Dr. Carl Bezold of Munich, one of the most painstaking among the younger Assyriologists, for its compilation. The first result of his labors is before us. The Kouyunjik collection comprises nearly one-third of all the cuneiform tablets in the Museum, and the present volume describes about 3,000 tablets. The size of each tablet, its condition, and the number of lines of writing preserved are given; and when tablets have been published, references are added for the text and translation. The catalogue will be most valuable to students using the cuneiform collections of the British Museum, and the Trustees are entitled to the grateful recognition of all interested in cuneiform science for having undertaken the work.

It is much to be regretted, however, that the form of the publication is open to serious exception. The typography is, in some respects, good, the outline cuneiform types being especially commendable. The Roman character employed is also clear, but no attempt has been made to distinguish statements to the eye by the use of different types. The numbers would be of more service at the beginning of the articles than at the end. Catch-numbers at the tops of the pages would have been extremely useful. A judicious selection of technical terms, an avoidance of unnecessary expressions, and the use of a more reasonable system of abbreviations (as for the very common terms "obverse" and "reverse"), would have materially reduced the size of the catalogue.

The English is incredibly bad. The author certainly brings a very serious accusation against Mr. Evetts of the Department of Oriental Antiquities of the British Museum, in acknowledging "indebtedness for a revision of the English text." It is no exaggeration to say that probably no book in worse style has ever appeared in the "English" language. That the Trustees of the British Museum were willing to authorize the publication of the catalogue in its present form is a matter for surprise. To point out the peculiar constructions (which not infrequently leave the reader at sea as to the author's meaning) would require a volume; a few specimen bricks will suffice: p. 52, "obverse and reverse, which are now joined together, belong on this account, and on that of the similar material, writing and contents, apparently to the same tablet, although the two parts do not fit to each other"; p. 60, "and on both sides very large pieces out of the middle are broken out"; p. 66, "on obverse 31, and on reverse 29 lines, of which on obverse considerable parts are broken out, with clear Assyrian characters," etc.

The most serious charge to be made, however, is that the catalogue is subjective and personal in tone throughout. The British Museum, or, for that matter, any other public institution, should not assume the attitude of criticism towards the labors of scientists; its position should be neutral, with no persons or theories to favor. Its mission is to acquire collections and render them accessible to students. And when foreigners are employed in the preparation of scientific publications, a decent regard for the English language should prompt a careful revision of the text.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Butterfield, C. W. History of the Girtys. Cincinnati: Robert W. Clarke & Co. $3.50.
Drysdale, W. The Princess of Montserrat. Albany Book Co.
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